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THE SCHOOL BOARD MEMBER



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THE SCHOOL BOARD MEMBER

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PREFACE

MANY books on education are being published every year. They deal with such important subjects as teaching methods, scientific measurement, the curriculum, individual differences, schoolhouses, school administration, and school finance. The survey movement is apparently not suffering any decline; educational magazines are crowded with articles dealing with many interesting and vital problems of the day. Every aspect of education, it seems, is being studied, and the results put at the command of the great organized army of teachers and administrators.

However, it appears that none of these books and few of the magazine articles are being written for the school board member. Very few of them are being written about the school board member. Even surveys, with all their careful analysis of administration and teaching, usually stop short when they reach the specific problems of school boards. They clearly diagnose conditions; they clearly specify what should

be done; but, except in rare instances, they do not tell how to make the improvements which they advise.

In this lack of specific material for the policy forming and managing agencies, the school offers a marked contrast to industry, engineering, and political science. Most of the literature of school administration stresses the executive side. On the contrary, in the other fields mentioned, particular stress is placed upon the determinative aspect of administration: that is to say, upon policy forming, planning, organizing effort, personnel management — in general, upon the duties of boards of directors and governing commissions.

It is with this second aspect of school administration — the determinative or policy forming — that this little volume deals. It takes up in a specific way the problems of the board of education and discusses them chiefly from the board's point of view. Little attention is given to the executive factor which plays so large a part in books on school administration. It is true that mention is made of "what to do," but the main emphasis by far is placed upon "how to do it."

Two leading sources of information have been utilized. The first is the experience and practice of the most efficient school boards, or, in other words, the best work that is being done. This material has been supplemented by data from scientific studies in education whenever they would apply and were available. The second source has been the great field of practical industry and engineering, especially those special activities and ideas centering about the movement known as scientific management. A vast amount of valuable material, practical in nature and applicable to education, has been found in this source.

An effort has been made to follow a simple, straightforward method of treatment. Usually the first step has been to state the issues and problems. The next step has been to bring the facts of experience and investigation to bear upon the solution, and finally to reach conclusions. However, no claim is made that the best conclusions have invariably been reached. When opinions and facts on any question have been in conflict, both sides of the argument have been stated as fairly as possible. The purpose has been throughout to state con-

clusions in accord with sound principles and experience.

The list of references appended at the end of each chapter is necessarily short. Probably there are not more than one hundred good recent books and articles bearing directly upon the subject. Most of them have been cited, with the exception of school surveys, to which the student would naturally turn for information on administrative organization.

When one has had the temerity to publish, he should not ask for leniency in judgment. Nevertheless, the author is inclined to do so. His venture is a new one. Few have been over the path, and the way is not always open and plain. The problem "Planning the Educational Program" is an illustration. Fewer than a dozen persons have written in this field from the standpoint of method. If practice is as variable and uncertain as one is led to infer from the absence of recorded data, it is time to formulate technique if for no other reason than to invite discussion and investigation. After scientific investigations have been made, it will then be possible to bring together the results with the assurance that the methods outlined

may be safely followed. In the meantime, it is felt that generous allowances should be made for early efforts to analyze and organize the field.

The author wishes to acknowledge his indebtedness to many who have assisted him in the preparation of the manuscript. First in the list stand those whose writings are cited in the footnotes and the bibliographies. The following publishers have been very kind in extending permission to quote from their material: D. C. Heath and Company; J. B. Lippincott Company; Houghton Mifflin Company; The Bruce Publishing Company; Harcourt, Brace and Company; D. Appleton & Company; World Book Company; McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.; Harvard University Press; The National Education Association of the United States; *School and Society*. Valuable criticism has been given by many of his students, especially by those superintendents and principals who have enrolled in the Stanford summer term. Mr. W. E. Wiley kindly permitted the use of his plan of improving school boards in service, and the use of an adaptation of his organization chart. Mr. A. C. Barker, city superintendent of schools, Palo Alto, California, and Professor E. P. Cubberley,

head of the education department, Stanford University, read the entire manuscript, and made many suggestions which led to its improvement. Finally, special acknowledgments are made to Dr. Henry Suzzalo, on whose advice chapter v was written, and who also rendered assistance in correcting and revising both form and content. To all, the author expresses his most sincere thanks.

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THE SCHOOL BOARD MEMBER

CHAPTER I

THE POSITION AND ITS PERSONNEL

The American public school. — There are two general classes of public school districts in the United States: the rural and the urban. Rural districts comprise those unincorporated areas and towns with a population of fewer than 2500 people. Urban districts are the incorporated areas with a population of 2500 or more. In round numbers, there are a quarter of a million rural districts, 15,000 of which are village and consolidated schools. There are a few more than 4000 city districts, the number increasing at the rate of about 100 a year. These districts constitute the best organized free public system in the world. Authorities on government have declared that while certain European countries may excel ours in several phases of political

administration, such as the disposal of sewage, the improvement of housing, the control of finances, the conservation of resources, and progress in beautification, their schools are, as a rule, decidedly inferior.

The superiority of American schools has been achieved under the management of school boards. The plan originated with us, and has been in use for nearly three centuries. As now developed, the authority of the school board comes from the people of the state. Usually the state constitution authorizes the legislature to lay out the general plan for a uniform free public school system. The legislature in turn designates certain administrative areas or school districts, and turns the management of the schools within each of these districts over to a school board selected by the people. This board of directors or trustees is given special powers, and upon it are imposed certain duties. The board members, whether elected or appointed, are officers of the state, and derive their powers from all the people of the state.

Importance of the position. — The fact that education is of state rather than mere local interest is itself one proof of the importance of

the school board member's position. The old saying "A chain is no stronger than its weakest link" applies here. If the schools of one district are inferior and poorly managed, either directly or indirectly, the whole state suffers. In the great game of citizenship where efficient teamwork is an essential of success, the presence of weaklings cuts down the total score. Moreover, there is no people so mobile as ours. Good roads and automobiles have greatly increased our comings and goings. Thus the ignorant and illiterate resulting from the neglect of education in one district may in the course of time migrate to districts where schools are the chief pride, adding to their burden of crime, dependency, and adult education. On the other hand, a neglect of education means a failure to develop the human resources of the state, upon which its very existence depends. Thus school boards have within their control the destiny of the state and the happiness and efficiency of its people. There is no other office of which this may be said unless it be the office of the teacher whom the board elects and for whom it must accept the responsibility.

The magnitude of the business of education

may be cited as another proof of the school trustee's significance. The rural schools serve directly forty-eight per cent of the population; the city schools, fifty-two per cent. The welfare of twenty-three million children is affected by every act of these managing boards. They employ three-quarters of a million teachers, to say nothing of the thousands of clerks, janitors, attendance officers, nurses, architects, and builders. Besides the thousands directly employed, there are other thousands who owe their occupations indirectly to the schools. To illustrate, consider the workers in the many establishments that make and distribute school furniture, equipment, supplies, and books. It has been truly said that the benefits which result from the expenditure of the school dollar are more widely distributed and reach more people than a dollar spent for any other public purpose.

The importance of the trusteeship may be expressed in financial terms. There are many school boards which control and direct annual expenditures of more than a million dollars. Certain school districts have in recent years voted from ten to twenty million dollars for buildings. There are cities where the transit

system is the only business that exceeds the schools as a financial enterprise. As a rule, school boards handle the biggest business operated within their districts. When considered on a national scale, the figures become stupendous. Public school property is valued at close to five billions; annual expenditures slightly exceed two billions. Taking the country over, the amount of business transacted each year runs about \$100 per pupil in attendance.

A concrete illustration. — An examination of facts and figures on employees and financial expenditures for a particular district will serve further to illustrate the importance of the school board. For this purpose a typical growing city of fifty thousand people has been chosen. In addition to those engaged in the construction of new buildings, a number which is subject to change from time to time, it has the following staff of permanent employees:

- 1 city superintendent
- 2 high school principals
- 11 elementary school principals
- 2 attendance officers
- 1 director of research
- 1 supervisor of special education for defectives
- 1 supervisor of art

- 2 supervisors of music
- 1 orchestra director
- 1 supervisor of penmanship
- 1 supervisor of mechanical arts
- 1 supervisor of agriculture and nature study
- 2 physical education directors
- 1 vocational adviser
- 1 director of home economics
- 1 director of compulsory part-time education
- 105 high school teachers
- 190 elementary school teachers
- 30 kindergarten teachers
- 13 janitors
- 8 clerks and stenographers

The annual budget of the schools of this city is a little less than three-fourths of a million dollars. About one-fourth of this amount comes from the county and the state; the school board has the task of raising the remainder locally. (See page 144.) The board is directing the expenditure of two million dollars for new buildings. At the rate at which the school population is growing, at least a fifth of this large sum should be put into buildings every year to take care of new pupils and to replace old structures. Financial problems are always before the board: the problem of raising money, of planning salary schedules, of letting building contracts,

of purchasing sites, of buying supplies, of selling worn-out equipment and abandoned school-houses.

The range of education. — As a final index to the significance of the school directorship, consider the range of the educational program. It has been increasing continually. In the earliest days in the country's history, elementary education, with the three R's as the staple subjects was all that was embraced in the idea of free public schools. To-day, however, the limits have been more widely extended in order that the educational needs of all the people may be cared for. Thus a school board may have charge of schools of the following types:

1. Kindergarten or pre-primary
2. Elementary
3. Junior and senior high schools
4. Junior colleges
5. Teacher training schools
6. Part-time schools
7. Evening and continuation schools
8. Special schools for defectives and delinquents

To be qualified for the responsibilities of his position, a school director should appreciate the vital relation of education to society. As public education is the chief bulwark of a free govern-

ment, there is nothing else of greater concern to every one. As individual success is dependent upon self-development through education, the schools must be kept forceful and efficient. Something of this serious relationship between the duties of the school board and human welfare was expressed over eighty-five years ago in the report of a small Massachusetts city. We quote it here because it shows an understanding of the meaning of the school as applicable to-day as it was then:

In their opinion [the school board's] there is not a more important office in the administration of public affairs, than that which they have the honor to hold: — there is not one more intimately connected with the present and future well-being of the community. We need no labored argument to prove that the prosperity of the community depends upon the intellectual and moral improvement of the rising generation. All admit that the intelligence and morality of the people are the very lifeblood of our free institutions. And he who would stint their growth, would, in effect, thrust a dagger into the very heart of the body politic.¹

The school board and the state. — The school board member is a direct representative of the state. It is his duty to carry out the educa-

¹ *Massachusetts State Report*, 1839, p. 77.

tional plan of the state faithfully, consistently, and thoroughly. Through the legislature, the people name many things that the member must do, some things that he must not do, and leave him free to carry out the plan and to decide upon particulars. It is very seldom that the state law tells how a thing must be done; it may tell how well some things must be done. The point is that the school board member is an agent of the state, that all the powers he has come from the state and the people, and that it is his duty to put the general state plan into successful operation in his own district.

Since he has to work under state direction, he should take an active interest in the state's legislative program. He knows or should know what laws are workable, what ones are defective, what new laws should be passed, and what old ones should be repealed. The board should be on the lookout for harmful legislation and should oppose it; it should propose and support good legislation. These principles invariably mean that a county and state, perhaps national, organization of board members is indispensable. Such an organization will give strength, unity, and continuity to the program of improvement,

and should prove the best means of informing boards of the activities of legislatures.

Duties of the school director. — Even in a small school the interests of some boy or girl will suffer unless each board member performs his duties with fidelity and efficiency. As a requisite to such performance, the duties must be well known. He should be perfectly familiar with the state school laws and with any local rules and regulations under which the schools are operated. Before taking office or shortly thereafter, he should go over the law carefully and inform himself as to his duties and obligations. This will not take much of his time — perhaps three or four hours — and one who is unwilling to prepare himself to this extent is certainly unfit for the office. Later reviews of the law will, of course, be necessary, but his first object should be to get a general view of the school plan. In the main, his responsibilities will cover the following:

1. The examination and approval of the annual budget.
2. The fixing of salaries and the conditions of tenure of teachers and other employees.
3. The estimating and levying of taxes.
4. The election of a school superintendent, teachers, and other employees.

5. The apportionment of duties of employees.
6. The consideration and approval of the educational program.
7. The examination of reports of business transactions in which the district is involved, and of similar reports of school progress.
8. The providing of adequate grounds, buildings, and equipment.
9. The drawing up and administration of rules for the guidance of the board.
10. The consideration of recommendations of the school superintendent and others who have managerial power.
11. The acting as a court of appeals for principals, teachers, and patrons concerning any matter which the administrative officials have not been able to adjust satisfactorily.

Many of these duties must be delegated to others. The board members do not have the time to perform them even if they had the special training and the inclination. The board is, of course, the governing body. It is charged with the duty of seeing that the state plan is carried out and that the schools measure up to a reasonable standard of efficiency. The board can delegate the performance of specific tasks to others, but it cannot delegate the final responsibility. A failure or a neglect cannot be explained away by saying that the superintendent did not do his duty, or that the clerk

was inefficient. The legal as well as the moral responsibility for the schools rests squarely upon the shoulders of board members.

Since the final responsibility is theirs, they should by all means give attention to the schools. They should, of course, employ capable managers and teachers. By all means they should train themselves along educational and administrative lines so that they may have a basis of estimating whether their schools are measuring up to the reasonable demands of modern education. This idea has been well expressed by one school board member who says:

We should familiarize ourselves, as far as possible and practicable, with the details of school work and school administration not only for our own information but in order that we may be in a better position to appreciate just what the superintendent and the teachers are trying to accomplish.¹

Duties classified. -- When duties of a similar type are grouped together it is found that we have only a few classes. The same would be true if one were studying the duties of directors of banks, railroads, or manufacturing systems. In all cases the duties are much alike. The great

¹ Earle, Jesse -- "How about School Boards and Superintendents?" *American School Board Journal*, LXIX, 42.

groups of duties which are common to so many enterprises may be called functions. Below is a list of five school board functions — the real reasons for the board's existence:

1. The function of organization; that is, the division of duties and coördination of effort among employees, and the development of a working procedure for the board itself.

2. The function of planning; that is, the laying out of the educational program and the duties incident to it.

3. The function of financial management; that is, the raising and disbursement of school funds.

4. The function of employment management; that is, the selection, compensation, tenure, and welfare supervision of employees.

5. The function of measurement; that is, the checking of results obtained in the local school and their comparison with results obtained in other schools.

Requirements for the directorship. — The chapters which follow will be devoted to a discussion of the most effective ways and means by which the five functions just enumerated may be discharged. Before turning to these problems, however, let us consider what kind of person makes a good school trustee. What qualities, abilities, and personal traits should one have to carry out wisely and well the duties which have been given?

There are several reasons why this question should be asked. In the first place, an analysis of the requirements should result in the selection of better officials. Board members often decide who their associates and successors shall be. If they know the standards up to which directors should measure, they can make their choices much more wisely. In the second place, by stating the requirements for the position, any one holding the office may appraise his own efficiency, and estimate what he needs to do in order to improve himself. No course of training for school board members is offered in any college or university. There are no legal requirements for the position that insure that the most competent individuals will be elected to the office. As a consequence, the people are forced to rely upon each member's initiative and sense of responsibility for his proper training and improvement. It is well to remember that no one is born a good school board member. He becomes one only through close study and sound experience.

It is unfortunate that so few studies have been made of the qualities and experiences which make a school trustee. One of the first

discussions of the subject is found in Chancellor's book, *Our Schools—Their Administration and Supervision*, written over twenty years ago. While his conclusions represent the opinions of one person, they are interesting and have some value. A fair summary of his findings is as follows:

I. *Usually good board members*

1. Manufacturers accustomed to dealing with large bodies of men and with important business interests.
2. Merchants, contractors, bankers, and other men of large affairs.
3. Physicians, if in successful practice.
4. College graduates who are successful in any walk of life.

II. *Usually poor board members*

1. Inexperienced young men, whatever be their calling.
2. Unsuccessful men.
3. Old men retired from business.
4. Politicians.
5. Newspaper men.
6. Uneducated and unlearned men.
7. Men in subordinate business positions.
8. Women.

There is probably no one who will fully agree with this classification. The second list particu-

larly invites criticism. We can doubtless agree that inexperienced individuals and politicians are usually undesirable directors. We cannot so easily agree that the others are objectionable. Take unsuccessful men, for example, assuming that the term is used to signify those who have not accumulated property or who have failed in a business venture. Perhaps any one would have failed under similar circumstances. Perhaps the fact that they have not amassed property is, under the circumstances, a mark in their favor. The school board is generally concerned with the intelligent expenditure of funds, and not with their accumulation. It would seem, therefore, that a trustee who knows how to spend wisely is more to be desired than one who merely knows how to save in a parsimonious sense.

There is even a word to say for the unlearned; that is, if by unlearned one means men and women who lack formal school training. It is true that those who have passed through the common schools and on to college have the advantage of first-hand knowledge of school practices. At the same time, there are persons who have not had access to educational

opportunities who value education very highly and who exhibit a culture which college graduates cannot surpass. In fact, some of the best friends of the schools are among those who have been denied the privilege of attending them. Moreover, the problems of the board are most frequently practical in nature, and the possession of mere formal knowledge does not help much in their solution.

Neither does it seem fair to condemn newspaper men as a group. Their ethical standards are quite as high as in any other profession. No one who knows the first elements of newspaper practice will seriously maintain that it is the rule "to exploit school affairs for copy." Likewise, the sweeping objection to women is not to be accepted literally. It is an undeniable fact that sex is not an important factor one way or another so far as most of the affairs of life are concerned. Some women make good board members and some make poor ones. The same may be said of men. Because of the character of the duties performed, and the common interests at stake, it is good policy to have both men and women on the school board. The best evidence that this theory is sound con-

sists in the fact that it is being introduced into successful practice very rapidly.¹

A study of board personnel. — The most suggestive study of school board personnel was made by George D. Struble at the University of Kansas. He gathered his data from city superintendents, and his conclusions present their point of view. After obtaining the name, age, occupation, sex, and experience of each board member, Mr. Struble had him rated by the superintendent as to whether he was a progressive or a conservative, and also as to the ways in which he gave the best service to the schools. Six specific points were considered; namely,

1. Service in financing the schools
2. Service in working on committees
3. Service in outlining policies
4. Service in giving leadership
5. Willingness to give time to school interests
6. Tendency to take up the time at board meetings

The last point was considered an undesirable trait; all the others were considered desirable.

¹ Chancellor gives a second illustration of poor board members, with which one could scarcely disagree. In this he lists the dishonest, the densely ignorant, the unmoral and immoral, the mere politician, and the man who "half understands and thinks he wholly understands, what the business of a school board member is, and what the schools now are and in future ought to be." See previous citation, pp. 61-67.

On the basis of judgment of the superintendents, the following conclusions were reached:

1. Members of the professions rank high as board members — much higher than merchants or “business men.”

2. Farmers, bankers, and manufacturers show most ability in handling school finances.

3. Housekeepers, doctors, and ex-teachers are of most service in helping to plan educational policies.

4. Men and women who have children make better school board members than those who do not.

5. The age of greatest efficiency seems to be from forty to fifty. Neither young men nor old men make the best members.

6. Newspaper men tend to monopolize the most time at board meetings.

7. Retired business men are not good board members.

8. Ministers are less efficient than men in other professions.

9. Members tend to become more conservative and less useful the longer they serve.

10. Housekeepers tend to give more time to school interests than do any of the others studied.¹

It is to be observed that the study makes prominent certain traits required for effective board membership. For example, superintendents believe that trustees should be progressive, should take an active interest in formulat-

¹ Struble, G. D. — “A Study of School Board Personnel”; *American School Board Journal*, LXV, 48-49, 137-38.

ing educational policies, should possess financial ability, and should know what the schools are doing. They believe that trustees should not take up much time at board meetings and should not be timid and conservative. These are valuable suggestions.

However, there are also some limitations to such an investigation. To illustrate, there are some ministers who make good board members. Not all retired business men are overconservative; there are newspaper men who take up very little time at meetings. Likewise, there are doubtless some farmers, bankers, and manufacturers who give little help in the solution of financial problems; and perhaps housekeepers who devote little or no time to school interests. The best thing to do is to select competent and willing individuals irrespective of their trade or profession. In this connection, the statement of a prominent woman school director is pertinent:

We should select directors only from the highest group because of general intelligence, sustained interest, concern in children and the schools, and vital interest in the welfare of the community. Many a successful business man is successful merely in the accumulation of wealth but cannot be helpful to a superintendent in character building.

Every trade, business, and profession has members not especially a credit to the community; who are narrow-minded, backward-looking individuals. Others are selfish and always looking for personal gain. The point is this: we might better think less of whether the individual is butcher, baker, candle-stick maker, man or woman, and think more about the individual as such. We should try to determine whether the individual has those qualifications which will enable him or her to evaluate properly the cultural as well as the practical things of life.¹

A good working board. — Taking account of opinion in the field, it seems well, even at the expense of some repetition, to show as clearly as possible the composition of a good working board. While keeping in mind that individuals of high character and ability should be chosen, it should be remembered that the working unit is not the individual but the group. One member should as a consequence supplement the others as much as possible. That is, if we can find one director strong in a given line, a second strong in another line, and so on, there will be a good board if the members will coöperate. A description of an efficient board is given below, both desirable and undesirable qualities being mentioned without distinguishing one

¹ Kraus, Lena Hoffman — "Superintendent and School Board Member"; *American School Board Journal*, LXIV, 37-38.

from the other. From this composite, it is possible for the discerning director to find some of his strong points, and, it may be, some of his deficiencies:

1. *Housekeeper*. — Greatly interested in the schools. Visits classes frequently, and talks over problems with the teachers. Does faithful work on committees, attends meetings regularly, and talks to the point. Watches over the welfare of the women teachers and the girls in the school.

2. *Banker*. — Is president of the board. Talks but little. Is a good judge of character. While a little too conservative about new ventures, is open to conviction, and when a program is adopted has the courage to see it through. Is quick to recognize the good ideas of others. Always keeps the welfare of the school foremost. Has no patience with people who want to use the school for their own selfish interests, and especially dislikes politicians and long-winded speakers.

3. *Doctor*. — A fine professional type. Has a broad general acquaintance, makes friends readily, and is very loyal to his fellow board members. Knows the fundamentals of education well, and reads the best books and magazines on education. Very seldom criticizes, is always good natured, and often keeps the meeting from getting tense by telling an appropriate joke. While easy going and generous, may be counted upon to stand firm when the time comes for it. Makes school buildings and health education his specialties.

4. *Mecumic*. — A man of sound principles and good common sense. Has children in school. Has a keen

interest in the curriculum, and has been of much help in introducing the vocational subjects. Keeps the point of view of the common man before the board. Judges propositions strictly upon their merits, and cannot be "fixed" or controlled by politicians. Was at first a little sensitive and a little suspicious of the good intentions of his associates, but soon learned that others than the laboring man may support the idea of public education. Has invariably supported the requests of the teachers for adequate pay, for pensions, and for stable tenure.

5. *Club woman.* — A woman of broad training, culture, and refinement. Has all the zeal and the energy of a crusader. Is impatient for results. Has considerable confidence in her own judgment, and does not hesitate to make others produce reasons and facts to justify their stand on important subjects. Cares very little for expediency; accepts defeat without malice; but is persistent. Wants the school to have the best. Insists upon absolute candor among the board, and believes the people are entitled to know all the facts. Can be relied upon absolutely.

Qualities summarized. — From such experience and such investigations as are available, it is possible to summarize the desirable traits of the school director. These have been given on page 24 in the form of a score card in order that the school director may estimate his own efficiency. Twenty qualities are given in all, and at the top of each column is placed a number which indicates its relative value. A director

who ranked superior on all twenty traits would be entitled to a hundred points; one who ranked average would score only sixty points at the best. The qualities are as seen below:

SCALE FOR RATING THE EFFICIENCY OF SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS

QUALITIES	5	4	3	2	1
	Superior	Good	Average	Fair	Inferior
1. Belief in the public school					
2. Willingness to learn					
3. Interest in the community					
4. Ability to coöperate					
5. Ability to withstand criticism					
6. Ability to plan for the future					
7. Loyalty to associates					
8. Sense of justice					
9. Knowledge of education					
10. Financial ability					
11. Honesty and sincerity					
12. Willingness to progress					
13. Sense of responsibility					
14. Intelligence					
15. Persistence					
16. Ability to get things done					
17. Open-mindedness					
18. Punctuality					
19. Courtesy					
20. Good nature					
TOTALS					
FINAL SCORE					

Motive in accepting office. — In light of the requirements, it is plain that only a high motive

can induce a responsible person to take the office. This motive can be nothing else than a desire to perform worthy and unselfish service. Every one who has had experience knows that its acceptance means considerable sacrifice of time, money, physical comfort, and peace of mind. This is as it should be, for as a result, only the best men and women, those with the highest sense of civic duty, will take the position. Instances, of course, have been known where school directors were not faithful to their trust, but these are less numerous than cases of dishonesty in private life, and in city councils and state legislatures. A person who takes the office for selfish reasons must be vastly disappointing to himself and to all friends of good schools and decent government.

On the other hand, it is believed that the position is a civic obligation from which no good citizen will claim exemption. Every one ought to do something outside of his regular occupation, for which he is not paid, and, it may well be, for which he receives little if any recognition. This idea is nowhere better expressed than in the words of a school trustee, Mr. Jesse

Earle, of Janesville, Wisconsin. Mr. Earle said:

I claim that good citizenship requires that every intelligent man and woman devote a certain portion of his or her time, effort, and ability to the performance of those things for which no actual remuneration is paid, and which are absolutely essential to the welfare of the State and the community. School board work comes under this class of duties, and, when undertaken, should be performed without fear, prejudice, or partiality, having in mind at all times only the best interests of the community, and of the young people of the community, whose destiny is literally in their hands.¹

Approved compensations. — There are, however, certain approved compensations in being school trustee, aside from the satisfaction of feeling that one has done his civic duty. It is in the process of doing things for others that the most self-development takes place. Success is nearly always a product of social approval. If one looks back over the lives of eminent men and women, he will observe that those who have done the most for others are the ones who rank highest in history. To an intelligent, socially-minded individual, the position which offers the widest field for service is the one most to be

¹ Earle, Jesse — "How about School Boards and Superintendents?" *American School Board Journal*, LXIX, 42.

desired. Service means growth. In the opportunity for service, the school board directorship leads all others.

The associations themselves are worth while. The people whom the board member meets in the transaction of board duties are usually congenial, and almost always among the best people of the community. Many of them are also looking for chances to serve rather than for chances to receive. It is for the member to seize upon and put to work this desire on the part of his fellow citizens to help the community. The young people in the school are themselves refreshing. They have a hopeful outlook on life; they are idealistic; they are stimulating. They believe in education, have confidence in people, and respond generously to appeals to honor, loyalty, and good will. It is far more satisfactory to work with and for people of this kind than to associate with those who have a hopeless or indifferent outlook on life. There is no other office in this country which promises so much in the way of pleasant associations and firm friendships.

The position also offers an opportunity to learn. New problems are always arising. They

are of many kinds, and often very difficult to handle. They are concerned with finances, buildings, accounting, employment management, morals, scholarship, and almost everything that one can imagine. They embrace everything found in the management of industrial enterprises and many things besides. No matter how well a director has been trained or how intelligent he may be, he will meet with problems that tax his abilities to the limit and contribute to his growth. The directorship is an excellent training school in public affairs.

A final satisfaction may be mentioned. Education is a growing institution. The board member need have no fear that he is supporting a losing cause. No other institution is growing so rapidly. More people are putting their faith in the free school as a means of social and economic progress. And yet the limits of its possible service are by no means reached. One can enter upon the directorship in full confidence that the growth which has been so marked in the present century will, under proper management, continue indefinitely.

Moreover, guesswork and conjecture are fast disappearing from education. Research workers

are continually devising, testing, and experimenting with new methods. By means of scientific devices now available it is possible to predict with a high degree of certainty what results will come from the adoption of a given policy of administration or instruction. Waste is being eliminated; time is being economized. The power of the individual teacher is on the increase. Training schools are turning out graduates better equipped for teaching. The schools are more efficient than ever before. Notwithstanding an all too common idea, the children of to-day spell better, write better, read better, and know more arithmetic than the children of 1850. It ought to be a matter of pride to be associated with and to be helpful in directing a great and ever growing institution.

Summary. — The American public schools are the best in the world. They have been managed since their inception by boards of education. The office of director is an extremely important one. School boards control an immense business and social enterprise. The duties of board members are specified by state and local laws and regulations. They come under such general headings as organization, planning,

financial and employment management, and evaluation of results. Only a person of high abilities and fine character is competent to serve on a school board. The largest compensation received is the sense of faithful performance of an important duty to the community, the state, and the nation. In addition, there are personal satisfactions which alone make the work worth while. No better opportunity to shape the future can ever be found.

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CHAPTER II

ORGANIZING FOR BUSINESS EFFICIENCY

What organization means. — There is just one purpose of organization. That is “the effective combination of the efforts of many for the achievement of a common end.” Three main essentials may be distinguished:

1. The board itself must have sufficient authority to enable it to establish and maintain a good school system, and it must be relatively free and untrammelled in exercising this authority.
2. The board must delegate authority in such a way that the function of one employee will not overlap or conflict with the function of another.
3. There must be no gaps; that is, no functions for which no one is responsible.

A sound school organization is a necessity. Occasionally one may see a good school with a poor organization. If this is found, it means that the district has an exceptional board, an exceptional superintendent, and an exceptional teaching force. It also probably means that the parties concerned have had judgment enough to disregard the paper scheme and get down to a

solid working basis. In any event, a good working force will be better because it is well organized; a sensible plan of organization will do something for an inferior body of workers. It is a pitiful spectacle to see a group of conscientious and able people trying to work in harmony under an illogical and disjointed plan.

About all that efficiency management stands for is efficient organization. The chances are that when an expert is called in to inspect an industry that is losing money, he finds defects in the working plan. The Taylor system of management which put so many industries on their feet consisted for the most part in introducing a new plan of organization. In general, it meant the doing of three things:

1. The division of authority
2. The coördination of effort
3. The development of sound working procedure

The determining factor. — By putting these three ideas in operation, an efficient school organization may be obtained. This is not to say that schools should be modeled after industries. It does not follow that an organization which fits an ironworks perfectly will get results in a school system. It does not follow that

a system which is perfected for an army will suit the American free schools. A plan may make good industrial workers or good soldiers and still not make good citizens in the school sense. *The chief determinant of organization is the nature of the work to be done.* Organizations will, therefore, differ according to their chief aims and purposes. An army has one purpose, an ironworks another, a school another. These differences will appear in the working plans.

There is also a second consideration of moment. No organization will work automatically. It must be run by human energy. No matter how beautiful a plan appears on paper, it will fail unless it takes into full account the human factors. It is a mistake to put faith in organization alone. It exists to get things done. If it fails to do this it is useless. Now in education, the human element is the controlling one. Therefore, a working plan that does not take common likes and dislikes, common limitations, common aims and ambitions into consideration is not likely to succeed. To say that a plan must fit the purpose of the institution means that it must fit the purpose of those who put it into force.

Organization problems. — Two principal divisions of management appear. The first of these is the determinative element: the planning and policy making aspect. This is the peculiar province of the school board and the chief subject of this book. The second is the executive element. It is concerned with getting things done; that is, with carrying out the details of the plans which the board has formulated. The two problems of organization may be put in the form of questions as follows:

1. What is the best way to organize the determinative element; that is, the school board?
2. What is the best way to organize the executive element; that is, the employees of the school board?

These problems will be discussed in this chapter in the order given.

Types of board organization. — There are two distinct types of board organization. They may be called the independent type and the dependent type. The first draws its authority directly from the state and is entirely independent of any local township, county, or municipal authority. It can levy taxes as it pleases, subject to the limitations of state law, and can expend its income as it pleases. The dependent type of

board draws its authority from the local corporation, the city, and such a board is dependent upon the city government for its powers and especially for its finances. The independent school board is usually elective; the dependent board is usually appointive. The main difference between the two types, however, lies in the power to raise money. As a result the first type is often said to be fiscally independent, the second fiscally dependent.

The basic theories underlying the two types are at opposite poles. Those who favor the independent board maintain that education is a state function. To illustrate this point of view, let us assume that there is a group of people who want to organize a school system. They apply to the state, through the legislature, for an educational charter. On receiving their charter, they complete their incorporation by electing a managing board. The corporation thus formed has power, through its board of directors, to finance the schools by levying taxes upon wealth. As the taxing limits are fixed by state law, it is claimed that there is very little danger of misuse or abuse of the taxing power. In actual fact, no special educa-

tional charter such as we have described is given. Instead, the state legislature simply passes a general law which gives all local areas the right to establish and maintain schools, and makes it their duty to do so. The principle, however, is well illustrated in the process we have indicated.

Opposed to the theory that education is a state function is the idea that education is a purely local function. This theory may be illustrated in the following way. Assume again that a group of people apply for a city charter. This charter gives them the right to organize a municipal corporation for the purpose of performing several governmental functions: police protection; the operation of water, light, and power plants; providing transportation; and maintaining schools. A separate board may be appointed to manage each of these functions: a water, light, and power board; a park board; a police board; and a school board. The school board, in this case, gets its authority from the city corporation, just as the other boards do, and not from the state. It is dependent upon the city council or commission for money to run the schools; it can levy no taxes for school support.

Opinions on the plans. — There is a sharp difference of opinion as to which is the better plan. In general, authorities on school administration favor the independent school board, while authorities on city administration favor the dependent school board. Good examples of the first group are Cubberley, Strayer, and Frasier; of the second group are Munro, Goodnow, and James. Before reaching a conclusion it is necessary to make a comparison of the arguments for and against fiscal independence. Those who favor independent boards advance the following reasons for their position:

1. Education is a state function, not a local function.
2. Schools managed by independent boards are more efficient.
3. Schools managed by independent boards are freer from the contamination of city politics and the corrupt methods only too frequently found in city governments.
4. There is less conflict between officials under the independent board plan.
5. There is greater continuity of policy.
6. Technical questions of education are settled by experts and not thrown into local elections for decision.
7. Greater flexibility of budget exists, and new needs may be more promptly taken care of.

Validity of the arguments. — It will not be possible to examine all of these contentions.

Two of the points are of first importance: (1) are the schools better? and (2) are they freer from politics? Fortunately there is experimental evidence on the first question. Frasier¹ shows that schools under independent boards have stronger holding power, better attendance, smaller classes, more playground space, more experienced teachers, and a more equitable salary schedule than are found in schools managed by dependent boards. He concludes that "a fiscally independent school system has a better chance to achieve success."

Likewise, the evidence indicates greater freedom from political abuse in the independent school systems. Although this evidence is mainly to be found in school surveys and textbooks in school administration, authorities in municipal government admit the greater prevalence of political manipulation in dependent school districts, especially those operated under the old council plan. In such cities, politics extends to every phase and problem of school administration: the selection of teachers and janitors, the purchase of supplies and equipment, the buying of school sites, and the construction of buildings.

¹ Frasier, G. W. — *The Control of City School Finances*, pp. 63-76.

This aspect of the whole question is well brought out by Frasier, from whom we quote as follows:

The quotations given in Chapter I and elsewhere in this book show that even those who are opposed to fiscal independence for city schools do grant that the schools are influenced less by politics than are any other political bodies. In a school board that is appointed by the mayor, and changes with the party in power, it is impossible to keep the political element out. With an independent board of education, elected at a special, nonpartisan election from the city at large and given authority to manage its own affairs, without reference to the party in power at the "city hall," it is possible to exclude most of the political party elements. This is a very valid reason why the schools should be under the control of an elected, non-political body that is fiscally independent.¹

Arguments supporting the dependent board.

— The supporters of the dependent board lack specific facts to support their position, but are strong on theory. In general, they maintain that

1. Education is a local function like any other necessary activity such as police and health protection and should be managed in the same way the other necessary functions are managed.

2. The dependent plan makes for greater economy and tends to prevent waste and extravagance.

3. Usually a better type of school director is obtained, since the appointing officer has the whole population to select from.

¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 86-87.

4. Those who fear political interference have in mind the old-time city councils and city hall rings. The new city commission and city manager plans not only protect the school department from politics, but the other departments of city government as well.

There is no conclusive evidence bearing upon the validity of the arguments just cited, and, in the main, those who favor the independent board have the best of it. In justice to the negative, the following quotation is given from James, who has been one of the most consistent opponents of the independent school system. It illustrates very well the line of reasoning adopted:

Even if it were true that better school administration can be obtained by having a separate authority on which public attention can be centered, the same argument would lead to the establishment of a separate health authority, a separate police authority and fire authority, a separate park authority — the very situation we are congratulating ourselves upon just escaping. Some cities have, it is true, carried the development of recent years to its logical conclusion and have made the school authority subordinate to the regular organs of the city government. There seems to have been no prostitution of the public school for political purposes, which was so generally predicted would follow from this development, has actually occurred.¹

¹ James, Herman G. — *Municipal Functions*, pp. 115-16.

It is well to state that on many other points of school board organization authorities in school administration and authorities in municipal government are in substantial agreement. They both agree that the board should be appointed or elected (the latter preferred) at large and not from districts or wards. They agree that the term of office should be long (at least five years), and that no more than one vacancy should normally have to be filled each year. They believe that the membership of the board should be small — not more than nine, with five to seven recommended — and hold that large school boards will soon be a thing of the past. Finally they agree that no salaries of any kind should be paid school board members, and that no allowance should be made for expenses. It is therefore seen that there is only one issue (whether the boards shall be fiscally independent or dependent).

Organization tendencies. — Certain tendencies which make for a compromise are developing. On the one hand, states are enlarging their control over the schools, and one who hopes for absolute “home rule” as applied to schools is sure to be disappointed. States are certifi-

cating teachers, fixing building standards, extending compulsory school ages, and making curricula. More money is being raised from state sources. Delaware and Nevada have adopted in a modified form the idea of a state educational district. State irrigation districts as in Colorado, and state police districts as in New York and Pennsylvania offer precedent for a still wider extension of state control over education. Certainly no one can show that there is any disposition on the part of the state to relinquish its avowed rights to fix minimum educational requirements.

On the other hand, city commission and city manager forms of municipal organization are growing in number. There is also a marked tendency to favor the reorganization of county government after the city plan. There are now about five hundred large cities under "home rule" and about three hundred small cities. The number is increasing at the rate of about fifty cities a year. The old council plan of city government is unmistakably doomed, and a generation should see the new systems of city organization universally adopted. County reorganization has progressed more slowly; only a

few have been thoroughly reconstituted, but more and more states are adopting permissive legislation, and there is a strong sentiment among leaders in many fields back of the movement. Along with political reorganization of the county is going educational reorganization under the county unit plan, and the small local unit will doubtless in time disappear as an important factor in education.

It appears then that there is a constantly growing element of state control, with local administration in the hands of a board of from five to seven members. There are many who favor a single commissioner rather than a school board, but the idea has as yet gained no following among authorities in education. As state requirements keep on going higher and higher, the margin between what the local board must do and can do becomes correspondingly less. It appears probable that the issue will in time disappear, both factions gaining some concessions, and that the final outcome will be local boards coördinate with other local governmental departments, but rather strictly controlled by state regulations.

Organization within the board. — No matter

from what source the board draws its authority, the problem of internal organization is the same. Only one issue is involved; namely, *Shall the board act as a committee of the whole, or shall it organize by the appointment of subcommittees?* This is a very vital question and deserves careful consideration. Those who favor the abolishment of the committee plan declare that it is a survival of pioneer school days and has outlived its usefulness. Let us put this contention to the test by examining the origin of the committee system.

There is no doubt that the committee idea is really older than the school board. In the New England towns during colonial days, the town selectmen were in charge of the schools as well as in charge of other town affairs. When special problems came up, such as building a new schoolhouse, or selecting a teacher, the selectmen would appoint special committees of citizens to look after the matter. As schools grew, the need of permanent school committees was felt. In the course of time, the selection of these school committees was authorized by law and then we had school boards as we have to-day.

Now when school boards were finally author-

ized, they continued the old practice of appointing special committees. They appointed the committees from their own membership, however, instead of from outside citizens as did the old selectmen. They had committees on buildings and grounds, finance, teachers, courses of study, and the like. It is to be remembered that at this time the boards took charge of all the details of school administration, and that there were no school superintendents and principals. The boards performed both the determinative and the executive functions. The directors visited the schools, supervised the janitors, examined the pupils, selected textbooks, certificated teachers, prepared courses of study, and performed many duties which they now delegate to others.

As soon as the schools attained any size, the directors could no longer attend personally to the many details of administration and supervision. They had to employ help. As early as 1844-45, the school board of West Springfield, Massachusetts, states in the annual report:

Having devoted eight entire days to the examination of teachers, your committee found themselves required by the statute, to visit each of the twenty-eight schools,

once at the beginning, once near the close, and once each month during their continuance. The law on the one hand demands nearly two hundred days of labor, and their own number of three makes compliance with this demand an utter impossibility. . . . Your committee feel that the requirements of the law, as to the visitation of the schools, is not too great. There is no business that will prosper without any supervision. It is a conviction, which becomes deeper and stronger with every year's experience, that it is both a false and a wretched economy which seeks to obtain from three men, the labor which six could hardly perform.

The employment of superintendents. — It is seen from the foregoing that in time the administration of schools became so complex and required so much time, that even though the board divided itself into subcommittees their duties became laborious and impossible. At this period they commenced the employment of an agent of the board to devote all his time to administration and supervision. This official was called the superintendent. With this step the main need for subcommittees disappeared, but because of the force of custom, and, perhaps, because the new official was not wholly trusted, the committee plan continued. As soon as the first school surveys were made, it became apparent that there were many defects

in the committee system. For example, it was not unusual to find as many as twelve special committees toiling away on special school problems, such as the following:

1. Making the course of study.
2. Interviewing, employing, and discharging teachers.
3. Disciplining the big boys.
4. Selecting library books.
5. Buying ink, paper, pencils, and other supplies.
6. Supervising the janitors.
7. Examining and criticizing the work of the teachers.
8. Adopting textbooks.
9. Deciding upon the form of letter heads for the superintendent's office.
10. Setting the dates of teachers' meetings.

It is generally agreed that it is far better for the school board to leave the details such as have been enumerated to the superintendent, the principals, and the teachers. Even in the small rural schools, it would be well for the board to put such tasks into the hands of one person — the principal or teacher, or the county superintendent. The board could then give its time to the more important duty of planning and legislating. In city schools where an executive officer is employed the need of subcommittees has almost entirely disappeared.

Not only are subcommittees considered unnecessary, but they are charged with being the cause of defects in management. They are accused of blundering, undue interference with the progress of the school, and sharp politics. Instead of one board, working as a unit, the committee system results in as many boards as there are committees, each struggling to dominate. This weakness in the plan is well brought out in the following quotation:

It was said that the board of education which was elected by popular vote was not a unit on administrative policies, a situation which was aggravated by the committee system. In fact, it is held that this system by which a committee on teachers, a committee on finance, and a committee on buildings and grounds was maintained, created three boards within a board. The committee on teachers did business with the superintendent, the committee on finance with the clerk, and the third committee with the superintendent of buildings.¹

In contrast with this criticism of the committee system we have the statement of a board member concerning the efficiency of the committee-of-the-whole plan.

We act on all subjects as a committee of the whole. It takes longer, but has proved more satisfactory in our case. In acting together we all have our say on every

¹ *American School Board Journal*, LXVII, 42.

topic that comes up. We all know everything that is going on, and every member has his voice in all affairs. The members like this and the public likes it, for when a citizen asks a board member about a particular thing that board member knows all about it and can talk intelligently on the subject without having to ask some member of a committee about it. It is this free and open discussion of our affairs that has made us a successful and smoothly working board of education, and has built up in our organization a loyalty to each other and to the school that is remarkable.

We differ in some things, but we do not get personal in our differences. We do our arguing before we get down to a vote, and after we get everything thrashed out, our vote is usually unanimous.¹

Almost all educational authorities condemn the committee system. They claim that committees subtract all the real strength of the board, and cause it to become a rubber-stamping body. Many matters vital to the school are passed upon by minority committees, and approved by the whole board without the members, except those on the committee, knowing what is being done. Of course, committees are undoubtedly justified at times as a time-saving device, but on the whole it is wiser for boards in the larger schools to get along without making permanent committee appointments.

¹ "Our School Board"; *American School Board Journal*, LXVII, 52.

The best study of committees was made by Ballou. After an investigation of conditions in seventy-two cities, he concluded as follows:

The few members of a standing committee play altogether too large a part in the decisions of the board, as shown by the fact that (1) more than eighty per cent of the committees are minority committees, and (2) the reports of the committees, whether large or small, through necessity are seldom discussed by the whole board.

The committee organization permits the exercise of pernicious influences because (1) of the prevailing method of the appointment of members by the president of the board, (2) its closed meetings, and (3) the fact that it is easier to deal unscrupulously with a small committee than it is with the whole board.

The committee violates four principles of effective administration, as follows: (1) the duties of each committee cannot be clearly defined because the functions of the committees overlap, due to the fact that committees are usually organized according to no known principles of organization. (2) This makes it impossible to fix the responsibility of each committee because no one knows just what its duties are. (3) The absence of any well defined duties makes it impossible to hold the committee responsible for its acts. (4) The committee system tends to confuse lay control with professional and executive management.¹

Dividing administrative authority. — The determinative element of the board's authority

¹ Ballou, Frank W. — *The Appointment of Teachers in Cities*, pp 121-22. Harvard University Press, publishers; Cambridge, Massachusetts.

should not be divided. It should not be parceled out among committees, or delegated to the president of the board, or the school superintendent, or to any one else. The determination of policies is the real reason for the board's existence. If it permits this authority to be monopolized by a few and subdivided among its members, then it has lost most of its justification. The schools might as well be turned over to a manager or to a board of "selectmen" who appoint committees of citizens to manage the schools as in the old days. The chances are that such action would cause the public schools to decline in efficiency and lose the confidence and support of the public.

However, the situation is exactly the reverse of this when we come to the executive element of the board's authority. The members cannot be expected, as has been shown, actually to perform the duties of carrying out administrative details. The fact that committees have blundered in trying to execute policies has been one of the main reasons for their condemnation. The simplicity of the early school has disappeared. The board must perforce depend upon some one to attend to the numerous details of

school administration: the buying of supplies, the supervision of janitors, the measurement of instruction, the selection of teachers, etc. The two questions which confront the board are as follows:

1. What executive duties should be delegated?
2. To whom should these executive tasks be delegated?

What should be delegated? — Two general principles should be applied in answering the question "What should be delegated?" First, the board should not delegate in any way the duties of determining policies and planning general programs. (The determinative element.) Second, the board should delegate all the duties of carrying out its policies and programs. (The executive element.) In order to illustrate these two principles, let us enumerate some concrete examples of determinative and executive duties. It seems safe to say that

- I. The board should not delegate the duties of
 1. Selecting the superintendent or other leading administrative official.
 2. Approving the budget.
 3. Adopting rules and regulations.
 4. Fixing the qualifications of teachers and other employees.
 5. Planning the system of school organization.

6. Deciding working procedure for its meetings.
7. Making contracts for buildings and grounds.
8. Passing finally upon the employment of teachers.
9. Expanding and otherwise modifying the educational program.

II. The board should delegate the duties of

1. Selecting teachers and other employees; that is, making nominations.
2. Supervising and directing all employees in service.
3. Purchasing supplies and equipment.
4. Making the curriculum.
5. Measuring the results of instruction.
6. Recording, accounting, and reporting.
7. Preparing the budget.
8. Drawing up rules and regulations.
9. Conducting investigations and gathering data.

Upon this point there is no disagreement at present. The general conclusions are that the board should decide what is to be done, and that the actual doing should be left to employees. In this connection, it may be said that it is far easier to find executive ability than it is to find ability to plan. The function of the board is, therefore, the higher, and one to which its members can afford to give all their spare time and attention. It is rather a surprising thing that directors should care to occupy their time with routine tasks of minor importance when

the great opportunities of planning and legislating are open to them. That they have done so must be because they have failed to grasp the broader conception of their function, which Cubberley so clearly states in *Public School Administration*:

The board's work as the representative of the people, is to sit in judgment on proposals and to determine the general policy of the school system. A school board is elected primarily as a board of control, to determine policies, select experts, approve new undertakings, and to determine expenditures. . . . The school board should select experts for the executive work, and should govern by deciding upon the larger matters of policy, expansion, and expenditure, and not to administer in any detail the school system under its control. The nature of the work of the board is largely legislative.¹

In justice to school directors, it may be said that few of them want to perform executive duties. Once in a while a board made up of mediocre individuals, not knowing what else to do, turns to the most obvious tasks: the buying of supplies, the interviewing of prospective teachers, the disciplining of bad pupils, the adopting of textbooks, and the government of the janitors. Once in a while a new member anxious to make a showing decides to do the

¹ Cubberley, E. P. — *Public School Administration*, p. 120.

routine work of administration himself. Such a person soon finds out by experience that he was not elected for any such purpose, and that he has neither the time nor training to do the tasks wisely and well. These cases are exceptions. The day of the school board that managed the whole educational program from fixing the hour of dismissal of pupils to deciding how to teach subtraction has passed into oblivion.

Agents of the board. — After the question of what to delegate has been considered, we may consider the question "To whom should the board delegate its executive tasks?" When the school is small this question is easy to answer. All the administrative functions which the board does not perform can be assigned to one person. In the small rural school this person may be the teacher, the principal, or the county superintendent. In the larger schools, the executive agent of the board may be the superintendent.

Even in the larger schools, the same principle may be applied. All the executive tasks may be delegated to the person who fills the office of general manager or superintendent. True, there are more duties than he can attend to personally. It then becomes the duty of the

board to supply their executive with such assistance and such clerical help as will enable him to take care of the whole range of administrative routine. The superintendent then oversees the work of his subordinates, renders decisions upon many matters, acts as the agent of the board according to its instructions, and keeps in personal touch with the work of the school.

The question "To whom should executive duties be delegated?" is generally answered by saying "To the school superintendent." Such a person, it is said, should have genuine administrative ability. He should be well trained, and should have had considerable successful experience. He should know how to handle problems of building, supplies, finance, and employment. However, since the school exists for educational purposes, and the other functions mentioned are merely incidental to education, he ought to be an expert in the administration and supervision of instruction.

The problem in larger cities. — Our question "To whom should executive duties be delegated?" becomes a matter of controversy as soon as we reach the larger cities. The administrative functions are so complex and so numer-

ous that no one man can direct them all. When this point is reached, the question in debate is as follows: "Is it better to focus all the executive authority which the board delegates in one man, or is it better to organize as many equal and coördinate departments as there are functions to perform?" We can agree that whatever plan is most valuable from the educational point of view is the one that ought to be adopted, provided of course that its cost is not exorbitant. Our pivotal questions then become:

1. Which system gets the better educational results?
2. Which system is the more economical, assuming results are equal?

Before attempting to answer these questions, let us be sure that the distinction between the two plans is clear. We may call the first type, where the board delegates all the executive authority to one person, the unit type. We may call the second type, where the board distributes its executive authority among several equal and coördinate departments, the departmental type. The first somewhat resembles the city manager plan of municipal government; the second is in some respects like the city commission plan.

An illustration will help make the differences between the unit and the departmental types clearer. Under the unit type, is found the organization now prevailing in most city schools. At the head stands the city superintendent. He is the chief executive of the board, and all the authority which the board chooses to delegate focuses in his office. Under his supervision and direction are such subordinates as the following:

1. Supervisors of instruction
2. Superintendent of buildings and grounds
3. Director of research
4. Business and financial manager
5. Clerk and accountant

Under the unit plan the city superintendent is the executive head of the schools and there is but one such head. Under the departmental plan, the board creates as many departments as there are functions to be performed and appoints a head to each department. These department heads are of equal rank, and are responsible to the school board directly, just as the city superintendent is under the unit plan. Under the department plan, a school system might have five heads as shown below:

1. Head of the department of instruction
2. Head of the department of buildings and grounds

3. Head of the department of research
4. Head of the department of business and finance
5. Head of the department of accountancy and records

Alignment of forces. — Although both practice and opinion are favorable to the unit plan, there are some who prefer the departmental system. It ought to help us somewhat to decide which is the better system by noting who is for the unit plan and who is for the departmental plan. Perhaps those who support the newer departmental plan do so because it is for their personal interests; though there is no need to criticize the motives of any one, as all seem to be equally honest in their beliefs. At all events, the alignment of forces for each plan is essentially as follows:

I. *For the unit plan:*

1. School board members
2. City and county superintendents
3. Authorities in municipal government
4. Authorities in education

II. *For the departmental plan:*

1. Superintendents of buildings and grounds
2. Business and financial managers
3. Clerks and accountants

The foregoing classification cannot be taken too strictly. There are some school directors

who favor the departmental plan. There are many superintendents of buildings and grounds, business managers, and clerks and accountants who are for the unit plan. The main point is, nevertheless, that where there is opposition to the unit plan it comes from subordinates who would expect to profit by higher salaries and enlarged authority by the departmental plan. In other words, they would like to see new departments created with themselves as department heads. Although there seems to be some disposition to stack the cards for individual profit rather than for the good of the schools, the subject is important enough to deserve fair and impartial consideration. We shall, therefore, proceed to examine some of the advantages and disadvantages of the two ideas.

Arguments for the unit plan. — The arguments in favor of the unit plan are as follows:

1. The plan is successful in practice. The best schools in the world have been developed under the plan. It has been under constant trial in all cities of the country for over seventy years.
2. The same plan is used in industry, where efficiency in administration has been developed to a high degree.
3. It is in line with the growing tendency in municipal government, the manager plan.

4. It bears the endorsement of all authorities in administration: education, government, and industry.

5. It prevents friction and secures coördinated effort.

6. It definitely fixes responsibility, and prevents "passing the buck," the old game that prevails where incompetence and irresponsibility are united.

7. It is flexible, and may be easily expanded or contracted as conditions change.

8. It centers effort and attention on the real purpose of the school; namely, the education of girls and boys.

9. It is far less liable to political manipulation.

10. It is more economical than the department plan.

Arguments against the unit plan. — The arguments against the unit plan are of comparatively recent origin. They have been voiced most frequently at meetings of the National Association of Public School Business Officials, though this association has taken no united action on the subject, and opinion within the association is divided. The objections which have been advanced to the unit plan are:

1. It is impossible to find one person who has the requisite training and experience to carry out all the multitude of administrative functions involved in the management of a big school system.

2. Autocracy is a probable consequence of the centralization of so much power in the hands of one person.

3. The system tends to discourage initiative among subordinates, and lessens the chances of promotion.

Arguments for the departmental plan. — Since there are only two theories in competition, it is evident that arguments against the unit plan are arguments for the departmental plan. However, some of them may be shown in a different light by stating them affirmatively. We find, therefore, the points favorable to the departmental plan to be as follows:

1. The plan is in accord with the functional theory of the division of duties which is often recommended in industry and in the commission form of government.¹

2. It insures a specialist at the head of every department.

3. It makes possible the combination of ideas from many sources through conferences by department heads.

4. It encourages individual enterprise by opening up avenues of promotion.

5. It makes for stability, inasmuch as changes in administration would be fewer than under the unit plan.

6. It is more democratic and therefore more satisfactory to the employees.

Arguments against the departmental plan. — As has been said, the weight of experience and

¹ In contrast with this statement, the United States Chamber of Commerce (Washington, D.C., 1923) finds the following tendencies in municipal organization:

1. Increased power and responsibility lodged in the chief executive, including large powers of appointment and removal.

2. Executive responsibility in budget formulation which the council can change only by reduction.

3. Reduction in the number of executive officers and transfer of responsibility to one individual.

of judgment are against the departmental plan. Its opponents hold that the present system is satisfactory, and that there are no real reasons for making a change. They point out that the specific advantages claimed for the departmental plan can all be obtained under the unit plan. At the same time, the unit plan is said to be free from certain defects which are associated with the departmental plan. The two central weaknesses are decentralization and lack of coördination, with their accompaniments of red tape and bureaucracy. In a more particular sense, the objections take the direction shown herewith:

1. The theory is unsound inasmuch as it is not in accord with the main principles of organization stated on page 32.

2. It is practically untried, but such experience as there is has not been satisfactory.

3. It is uneconomical and inefficient.

4. It results in the setting up of a system for its own sake. It means a large number of bureaus, each claiming its own prerogatives, each ambitious to build up patronage, and each plentifully surrounded with red tape.

5. It results in friction, waste motion, and jealousy.

6. It retards the progress of education. The rate of movement of the whole school is the rate of movement of the slowest department. An inefficient building depart-

ment, for example, would seriously hamper the efficiency of the whole school.

7. Admitting that it is difficult to get one competent administrator for the schools, how much more difficult it is to get five or six experts — one for each department.

8. It is based upon a false assumption; namely, that the functions of instruction, buildings, finance, research, business, and accounting are of equal rank. As a matter of fact, instruction is paramount to all others since it is the only purpose for which the schools exist. All the others are incidental and subordinate — only means to an end.

9. A probable result of the department system would be the breaking down of the board plan of organization.

Special considerations. — The final conclusions are favorable to the unit plan. School boards should hesitate about removing purchasing agents or clerks from the direction of the superintendent, and if they have done so through some inadvertence should hasten to restore the unit idea. It is not claimed, of course, that there are not abuses under the unit plan, nor is such a claim made for any system. The defects can be remedied without engaging in an experiment which has not succeeded in education, and is not found in any other institution. On the other hand, the unit plan has back of it a long

record of success, is approved by experts in education, government, and industry, and is in accord with basic administrative principles.

Coördination. — This term means that the efforts of every person in the organization fit into and supplement the efforts of every other person and persons. To illustrate by a figure from mechanics, the parts must mesh as do the pinions of wheels in a working machine. In every organization, the plan must be definite. If there is overlapping of duties and authority there will be friction and wasteful duplication. If there are gaps, some duties will be neglected. Kimball lays down the main principles of coördination as follows:

Every plan of organization . . . must define every man's duties clearly and coördinate every man's efforts towards the desired results. The duties of every man and every department should be outlined as clearly as possible and the authority and responsibility of every man definitely fixed. Authority and responsibility are inseparable, and are essential to effective service. It is not good policy to keep men in uncertainty as to their positions in the organization, and when several men are on the same authoritative level their several fields should be carefully prescribed and their efforts carefully coördinated.¹

¹ Kimball, Dexter S. — *Principles of Industrial Organization*, ch. vi.

There are four essentials of coördination, the enumeration of which suggests the methods to be followed. They comprise

1. An administrative chart that shows every person in the organization, his position relative to every other person, the extent and nature of his responsibility, and the extent of his authority.
2. A handbook of rules and regulations which specifically states the duties and powers of each department and of each individual.
3. A systematic method of giving directions and orders, and of obtaining returns or reports. This means that all instructions from one in authority should be written and that special and regular reports be rendered of progress and results.
4. Frequent interchange of ideas by means of written communications and by conferences.

It should be well understood that organization and system are only means to an end. They are to be judged by the extent to which they get things done. No system of coördination should exist to handicap ability or suppress initiative. Its reason for being is for the purpose of bringing sufficient power to bear upon a problem at the time it is needed in order that the best solution may be reached. It should not be machine-like in the sense that it is static and unchanging. On the contrary, the system

should be flexible, growing, and dynamic. The scheme that meets the two requirements: (1) freedom of the individual, and (2) concentration of effort is the best.

Administrative principles. — Administration is so broad a field that it is difficult to summarize it. There are guiding rules applying to every aspect of it, and the conclusions which have been stated in the discussion of the several topics of this chapter may be taken as illustrative. In addition, there are given three outstanding principles which can be used to guide board action. They are

1. The principle of unity. Every one knows how friction slows down a machine or a current. It has the same effect upon school activity. Friction is the inevitable result of divided authority. A well-organized board is a unit, and its executive department is a unit.

2. The principle of stability. This means that the effort is directed in a steady, consistent, and regular method toward the goal. Frequent change of policy, disagreement, uncertainty, indecision, conflicting orders, periods of rush and hurry, periods of doing nothing, the idea of too many bosses, or of no bosses — all are signs and results of lack of stability.

3. The principle of uniformity. This principle is aimed at the prevention of favoritism and of discrimination. It recognizes that the state and the school board want the

benefits of education distributed fairly, and is opposed to all that goes under the name of politics.

A few other principles of a slightly different type may be stated. They also are general in nature, and with possibly one exception, apply no matter whether the unit plan or the department plan is adopted. For example:

1. Once authority has been delegated there should be no interference. In a case like this the advice to the board is "Hands off."

2. Promotion should be provided for both within and without the system. A promotion chart should be made which will show the possible steps in advance for each employee.

3. A single function such as buildings should never be split up among two or more individuals or departments.

4. The individual members of an organization should have a chance to share in formulating the rules under which they work.

5. An opportunity should be given to every one to bring ideas and suggestions for the improvement of the schools to the attention of the school board.

Summary. Organization is the process of combining the efforts of many in the achievement of a common purpose. It includes organization of the board, or the determinative element; and organization of personnel, or the executive element. Three conclusions have been

reached as to the first: (1) the board should be fiscally independent, (2) it should act as a committee of the whole, and (3) it should delegate executive tasks to others. The main conclusion on the executive element is that the board should delegate all the authority of this type to a single individual and hold him responsible for results. This single executive should take the responsibility for the division of duties among his subordinates and for coordinating their efforts.

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CHAPTER III

MAKING MEETINGS SUCCESSFUL

Importance of the board meeting. — In the preceding chapter, the duty of developing a proper working procedure was noted as one of the functions of the board. This is equivalent to saying that the board should make its meetings effective. The meeting is very important because it is there and there only that the board can legally perform its duties. The director as an individual has no control over the schools. At a board meeting he has his voice and his vote. Outside of the meeting he is a private citizen, with no more right than any other citizen to direct what the schools shall do. The duties and powers which he is given under the law can only be exercised when the board is in session. His position is very much like that of a state legislator. When the legislature is in session, the member can use his voice and his vote to help make laws, appropriate money, and create offices. He has no such right as an individual. He cannot give orders to state employees, he

cannot spend state money, he cannot do anything that any other private citizen does not have the right to do.

Directors should, therefore, try to make their meetings effective. If a good working plan is adopted and put into execution, the board's business can be cared for wisely and expeditiously. If there is no plan, the sessions are likely to be long and heated, there is likely to be much wrangling over minor matters, and decisions may be delayed or made in such a manner that they do not represent the best judgment or wishes of the members. A good working plan prevents one member from exercising too much influence. A good meeting is an occasion for deliberation, sincere discussion, and the free expression of the will of the majority. It is not an occasion for forcing one's will upon others. At a poorly organized meeting there will be many irrelevant remarks, many foolish questions, and much oratorical display. In contrast, a competent board works quietly, smoothly, honestly, and with certainty and dispatch.

Factors to consider. — As has been said, the essentials of successful meetings are the essen-

tials of effective board service. Doubtless the items which make or mar competence are as many as the persons concerned and the problems taken up. Nevertheless, there are a few factors of outstanding significance, without which a board cannot transact its business. These are treated in the succeeding pages in connection with the following topics:

1. The place of meeting
2. The time of meeting
3. The chairman
4. The secretary
5. The order of business
6. The conference relationships
7. Publicity

The place of meeting. — The board should provide a definite place for its meetings. Such a place should have several characteristics, among which are accessibility, comfort, and adaptability to the purpose. In rural schools, the school building, a home of one of the directors, or a business office is usually satisfactory, as the boards are small and visitors few. Any one of these is seldom suitable for the meetings of a city board. A classroom is not well seated; an auditorium is too large. The city council chamber is not always available when wanted,

and is usually unsuitable in size, arrangement, and equipment. Courtrooms are equally unsatisfactory. Sometimes the superintendent's office will do, but this is not ordinarily the case. The best solution is to provide a special room in a centrally located schoolhouse, the city hall, or in a building erected for administrative purposes. The last is the best course in the larger cities.

The size of the meeting room can be determined only by the size of the board. It is not desirable to provide extra space for a large number of visitors. If a subject of such intense interest as to draw a gallery is under discussion it is better to adjourn to an assembly room and conduct a public hearing. The presence of many spectators does not make for sound deliberation and the exercise of good business judgment. The relations among board members should never get to such a point as to attract a mob of curiosity seekers looking for a free-for-all fight. If they do reach this point, then it is time for a considerable number of the board to hand in their resignations. A board that does not work harmoniously is not a board at all.

While a large room for visitors is unnecessary, there will be need of some extra space. There are occasions when delegations and committees will want to appear before the board. Interested citizens sometimes drop in to see what is going on. There are always a few regular attendants. In addition, representatives of the local newspapers should be accommodated. Assuming a board membership of from three to nine, with ten or twelve visitors, a room of classroom size (twenty-two by twenty-eight feet) is sufficiently large for all ordinary requirements.

The equipment. — The equipment should be simple but of good quality. A large table around which the directors may be seated is the first essential. There should also be a sufficient number of comfortable chairs. A small table for incidental uses is desirable. Several filing cases for the records and materials needed at the meetings should be supplied. It goes without saying that the room should be well lighted, well ventilated, and properly heated. Wall maps and charts showing the district lines, transportation routes, sites and locations of buildings, pupil distribution, and so forth, are indispensable. If some attention is given to

making the meeting place attractive and comfortable, it will be found to pay in better attendance, better attention, and better temper. In general, the atmosphere and appointments should be those of a respectable clubroom.

All this assumes that meetings will actually be held in a public place, known to all the citizens. Unfortunately, school boards have sometimes fallen into the habit of meeting any and every place: in the back room of a grocery, in an undertaking parlor, in a barber shop, in a garage, or in a hotel lobby. In rural districts, too often the board transacts its business without formal meetings of any kind, unless brief and casual conversations in the field, road, or farmyard can be called meetings. That such practices are bad policy shows itself in the wretched and antiquated type of schools existing under such management — to say nothing of the fact that school business thus transacted is illegal. The rule should be to meet in the best place available in the district. One trembles for the future of children whose destinies are decided in cross-roads conferences, in dingy cramped dens in the city, or in gloomy, cavernous, and smoky council chambers.

Time of meeting. — The frequency of meetings must, of course, depend upon the amount of business to be transacted. This cannot be fixed offhand. As a general rule, a board that meets regularly oftener than once every two weeks is attending to matters that it should delegate or is working too slowly. The better managed schools will be able to get along with a monthly board meeting except when special subjects are under consideration. The regular monthly meeting is, however, indispensable in the smallest school. Weekly meetings dissipate the time of board and superintendent, and are necessary very infrequently.

The hour of meeting is relatively unimportant, and is dependent upon the convenience of the directors. Some city boards prefer the noon meeting. This is a good plan if the essential business can be attended to during the luncheon hour. For special meetings in particular, this will do very well. The afternoon meeting is more popular than the noon meeting, but the evening meeting is the general rule. Three-thirty is a good hour for the afternoon meeting to begin; eight o'clock a good hour for the evening meeting. The day of the week is only

important as it affects individual directors and the superintendent. For all purposes it is well to set it toward the first of the week — say Monday or Tuesday.

The sessions should be comparatively brief. The board that drags out its meetings three or four hours is not distinguished for accomplishing more work, nor for maintaining better schools. An hour and a half should be the maximum except on unusual occasions. Thus a meeting which starts at eight o'clock can be finished by nine-thirty and the members can get away by ten. If a few congenial directors want to stay and rehearse the day's news, swap a few jokes, and smoke a few cigars, very well, but business should always take precedence over social affairs. Let those who want to visit do so after the board has adjourned. One advantage of women on the board is that they usually do not tolerate tiresome and long-drawn-out meetings, where smoke and talk are the main features.

If meetings are to move off with vim and snap they must commence on time. There is ordinarily at least one good-natured, even convivial board member who cannot make connections with his engagements. He comes bustling into

meetings, smiling, apologizing — but a half hour late. It is then necessary for the chairman to go over the ground that has been covered in the tardy one's absence and get him oriented. As he is the type that comes in late to the club luncheon and every other place he attends, there is no use trying to develop his time sense by fining him. He will simply pay up gracefully and repeat the offense.

The best thing to do is to keep a record of all cases of tardiness, and hand out reports on them once or twice a year. A better thing to do is to elect some one else to the position. The rule should be — never wait for any one who is late. Begin at the hour set and get the business done, even if the biggest banker in town comes in only to find that the financial matter very near to his heart is already settled. If a quorum is not present, adjourn, and report the absentees in the news so the people know who is responsible for neglect of the public business. The advantage of such action is that it makes for habits of punctuality, and harsh measures do not have to be employed.

The same principle applies to absences. There are occasionally a few directors who absent

themselves from the meetings whenever they choose. This is not always a serious fault, and it may be worth while to keep a man on the board even if he attends its sessions irregularly. He may, on special occasions, contribute more than the man who attends every meeting. It must be granted, though, that such directors and such occasions are few and far between. As a rule, the value of a director is in proportion to the regularity with which he is present at the meetings and the extent to which he keeps in touch with what is going on. The secretary should be instructed to keep a record of absences and tardiness, and hand each director a report once or twice a year.

The chairman. — There will be little trouble in maintaining good attendance and getting school business done if the board has a good chairman. Such a person is somewhat rare. It is a poor plan in the long run to practice rotation in the office of chairman. This is the plan by which the director oldest in service succeeds each year to the chairmanship. The practice may result in a competent officer one year and a very inferior one the next. The best thing to do is to get the best chairman that can be found

from the somewhat limited choice, and keep him in the position for several years. It has been suggested that the school superintendent act as chairman, of course without a vote. This idea is not in accord with experience in education or in any other field, and if adopted should be looked upon frankly as an experiment. It is worth trying out.

No one has tried to state the qualities and traits which go to make a good chairman, and no one has made a study of successful officers of this type. In the paragraph which follows, an attempt has been made to describe a capable presiding officer for a school board. As the description is based upon individual experience and observation it is subject to all the deficiencies which accompany opinion. It is given, nevertheless, to quicken discussion and invite investigation:

The school board president should be a person of courage. He should act with force, decision, and sound judgment. Justice and fair play should be conspicuous traits of his character. He should at all times be courteous, and should keep his temper under perfect control. He should strive his utmost to get at the merits of a proposition under consideration. While he should know the elements of parliamentary practice, he should be

more concerned at getting an expression of the will of the board than in upholding technicalities.

He should refrain from talking on most questions, and when he does so, should speak briefly, concisely, and temperately. He should be a person of high intelligence, and should be able to pick out the essential points and ignore the unimportant. If he cannot select the main issue and hold discussion to it, he will never be able to get things done. He should urge every member to express himself, but should keep debate down to a minimum. He should restrain the mere talker, and constantly remind him of the need of expedition.

Finally, he should be a person of sound character. He should have the full confidence of the public, and should have faith in the public schools.

It is the duty of the president of the board to preside at the meetings. Otherwise he has no more authority than any other member of the board. He has no right to make decisions that are in any way binding upon the board. It is generally unwise for the board to delegate power to act to the chairman or any other member. The sooner boards of education realize this the sooner they will be spared the administrative tangles which result from the efforts of an over-egotistic chairman to run the schools. Deffenbaugh comments upon this point as follows:

Too often the president of the board of education is considered having functions which he does not have.

Not infrequently teachers, parents, and others appeal to the board president, who legally has no more right to make decisions than any other member. His chief function is to preside at board meetings, and to sign such papers as he may be authorized to sign. It is true, however, that some board presidents attempt to run the schools. Some even encourage visits from teachers and parents with grievances which he attempts to settle.

Recently the writer was in the office of a superintendent who was discussing a matter with a parent. Just then the president of the board came in, and, after listening to the conversation for a minute, he began to talk. Soon the superintendent dropped out of the conversation, letting the president of the board settle the question at issue. It was the theory in that city that the president of the board was the most important man in the school system, so there was nothing to do but let the president of the board settle the matter.¹

The secretary. The business of the secretary is to keep the minutes of the board, and to care for papers and documents referring to board business. He attends board meetings to read and record the proceedings, and to produce any papers that may be required. He is not employed to give advice and counsel to the board. It is not his function to render decisions on any matter, but he should obey the instruc-

¹ Deffenbaugh, W. S. — *Administration of Schools in the Smaller Cities*; United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 2, 1922, pp. 30-31.

tions of the board. The papers and documents entrusted to him for filing should be open to the inspection of the public and quickly available to the board. He has no right to withhold papers which have been given him to transmit to the directors, nor to give out information without having special authorization to do so. If he is given to talking in or out of meetings it would be well to create a vacancy and fill it with a secretary who knows how to keep quiet.

In some school systems, the secretary is also business manager. This gives him other duties in addition to keeping the minutes and acting as custodian of records and documents. As business manager, he should furnish statements of the district's finances, make the annual report, take the annual inventories of school property, and perhaps even care for school supplies. Several city schools have placed the duties of secretary in the hands of an assistant superintendent, and find the plan successful. Unless the board definitely favors the departmental form of organization, the secretary should be under the supervision of the school superintendent.

With this consideration in mind, it is better to employ a young man or a young woman who is a trained secretary than to get a high-priced man who is ambitious to act in executive capacity. Some boards never learn how valuable the services of a well-trained and professional-minded secretary may be to them. Because of this, they may labor along year after year with a political incompetent who cannot accomplish half what can be done by an accomplished worker. Some advise that the superintendent keep the minutes of the board and care for the papers. This is open to many objections. Not all superintendents make good secretaries, and being a good secretary may reduce his efficiency as a superintendent. In small cities and rural schools, the best plan is to get the services of some responsible citizen who has clerical ability.

In the larger schools, as was stated, some one should be selected for the position because of secretarial ability. He should be under the direction of the superintendent, as it is considered unwise to separate the clerical office from the executive office. As it is the duty of the superintendent to enforce the decisions of the board,

he needs to have its instructions at hand at all times. In smaller cities, the secretary of the board can also act as the superintendent's secretary. By this means her time is used to better advantage with resulting economy. She can keep books, figure costs, make up reports, check attendance, and look after the correspondence. The advantages of this plan are shown by Deffenbaugh:

I think the advantages of having the superintendent's secretary, the board's secretary are many. It places the responsibility for all work officially. It lessens red tape materially in that anything which demands the immediate attention of the secretary of the board can now be had, while under the plan of having a member of the board serve as secretary it was often necessary to go to the secretary's home for much of the data required. Another advantage is that all records — minutes, expenditures, cashbooks, check books, and etc., are all in the superintendent's office. Board members now have a better insight into the books and workings of the board, since they do not hesitate to examine the books when left in the superintendent's office as public property.¹

Order of business. — The working program of the board is called the order of business. It is a device of deliberative bodies to prevent oversight or neglect of routine, to insure that

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 25.

new problems will be taken up at the proper time, and to give system and dispatch to the proceedings. A good order of business also helps to prevent abuses. Although it should not be allowed to control to the extent of keeping the board from doing what it wants to do, a reasonable respect for the system it imposes will really make for efficiency.

Usually the order in which matters are taken up is fixed by the rules and regulations of the board. Amendments and changes in the order of proceedings are seldom necessary; what the order is, is not so important as having a definite order of work and following it. In the event that a board is drawing up a new plan or is considering changes in the old order, it is well to conform to such principles as the following:

1. The order of business should be complete. If this is not the case, important matters will be carried over or neglected altogether.
2. The order of business should be fairly definite and specific.
3. The order of business should apply to affairs which actually come before the board. There is no need of going through a long formal list of things which never come before the board.

4. It should be arranged so that things which ought to be attended to first come first.

5. It should also take account of the complexity, difficulty, and delicacy of the tasks. The purely formal and the simple should be taken up first; the more difficult and that which is more likely to cause difference of opinion should be taken up last.

With these few principles in mind, the following order of business is given as illustrative. In

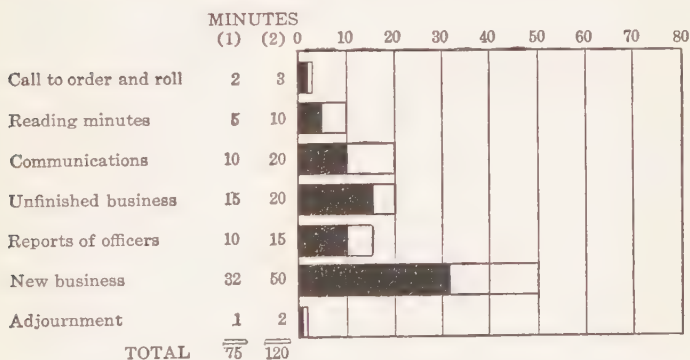


CHART II. — Distribution of time of board meeting: (1) average, (2) liberal

the columns to the right, the amount of time required for each division is suggested, with both average and liberal allowances. These should be checked from time to time by the board's secretary, and a special time schedule evolved for local guidance.

ORDER OF BUSINESS

DUTIES	AVERAGE TIME	LIBERAL TIME
1. Call to order and roll call	2 minutes	3 minutes
2. Reading of minutes previous meeting	5	10
3. Communications from the public .	10	20
4. Unfinished business	15	20
5. Reports of school officers	10	15
6. New business	32	50
7. Adjournment	1	2
TOTAL	75 minutes	120 minutes

Conference relationships. — In order to finish the meetings within a reasonable time, the board must work continuously. The members must coöperate with each other and with the chairman. If the latter is slow about putting a question to a vote, he should be reminded of the need for action by a director calling for the question. If controversial matters arise, it is usually wise to limit debate upon them. Argument does not often add any facts and never discovers any. Whatever is said should relate to the question at issue. Personalities should not be indulged in. It is only decent courtesy to assume that the members of the board are honest in their convictions. If they are not, sarcasm is not likely to reform them.

The need for time limit on debate is plain to a person of experience. Every board member is familiar with the demagogue and one-horse politician who takes advantage of every occasion to deliver an oration on the rights of man, the greatness of himself, and the sacredness of liberty. This type ought to be restrained — one is tempted to say, by violence if necessary. The usefulness of a director is ordinarily in inverse proportion to the amount of talking he does. To keep the wordy individual in bounds the board ought to adopt a rule that no one be allowed more than three minutes to state his position and his reasons for it. Another good way to keep the talker quiet is to call upon him for facts.

Yet every member should be called upon to express himself upon every proposition of any importance. The chairman should do this, not by merely asking "Is there any discussion?" but by calling upon each director by name. In time this will bring out the diffident, and will make the politician show his hand. It is also manifestly fair to all. The secretary, on a form prepared for the purpose, might record the names of those directors who expressed themselves on

the subject, and the names of those who did not.

Meetings ought to be really deliberative. They cannot be if a superintendent or director hurries around from one director to another during his spare time to pledge him in advance to stand for some proposition coming up at the next board meeting, or otherwise lays his wires in advance. If things are cut and dried before the board meets, there is not much need for a meeting. This does not mean that the facts concerning a proposed measure should not be brought before the directors in advance of the meeting. In fact, it should be one of the chief duties of the superintendent to see that necessary facts are supplied in advance of the time of action.

Petitions and delegations. — There is also a conference relationship existing between the board and the public. Petitions are an example of these. The invariable custom should be to give all petitions respectful, immediate, and intelligent consideration. While the subjects which they treat may not loom large in the eyes of the board who have the whole school system under their supervision, they quite prob-

ably assume gigantic proportions to the signers. The petitions should be read before the meeting, and a decision given after thoughtful consideration. No comments or resolutions which reflect in an uncomplimentary sense upon the petitioners should be passed.

Sometimes decisions upon petitions must be postponed until a later time. This should be done if the facts upon which an intelligent answer can be made are not at hand. If the matter is quite important, or if delay might be counted against the board, a special meeting should be held. The secretary should be instructed to acknowledge receipt of every petition and communication from the public as soon as it is received, and should also be instructed to keep the petitioners informed of progress and final board action. If a petition is denied it is advisable to set forth the reasons at some length, and, in some instances, a personal conference invited.

Delegations are also entitled to a friendly hearing. As the time which the board can give to any one item of business is limited, the head of the delegation should be asked to state his facts as briefly as possible. In some cases —

say if the points are not quite clear, or the matter is a very delicate and important one — the board may safely request that the facts be put in writing and signed by the delegation. As in the case of written petitions, the board should not hesitate to reserve its decision. The board should not yield too readily to a show of signers either protesting or favoring a proposition. It is very easy to be too responsive to the variable called “public opinion.” There probably never has been a petition or a delegation that gave more than one side of a case.

A related point is worthy of mention. The school board shares largely in the task of obtaining community backing. The members themselves should be prepared to attend meetings and explain and defend the school program. Figures and particulars should be available to the members for such purposes, and organizations should be encouraged to extend invitations. The reports of these meetings should be published in the local papers. People are almost always willing to do what is right and best when they have the facts and know conditions, and they like to have school authorities take them into their confidence. If a building

program is under way, a new course of study being introduced, a new site plan instituted, or other projects of general interest proposed, the board members should represent the schools before the people. It is good for the schools, the people, and the board. A discussion of school finance before the Chamber of Commerce, of special education before the Kiwanis, are illustrations of these types of service opportunities.

Following community wishes. — This brings up the question whether the board should follow the wishes of the community on matters of policy. Suppose, for example, that the board decides to put in the junior high school. Suppose there is a strong protest against such action from some well-organized body, or from a considerable number of citizens. What should the board do?

It is noticeable that there is a disposition on the part of some boards to surrender an enterprise under such circumstances. It is maintained here that they should not necessarily do this. In the first place, the original merits of the proposition remain unchanged. The reasons that existed for the favorable consideration of the proposition in the first place are doubtless the

same. Moreover, the directors are agents of all the people of the state. They are the agents, not only of the present generation, but of succeeding generations. They are not in honor bound to serve only those who happen to lift up their voices within the community precincts. They are in honor bound to serve the larger interests of society.

Assuming, however, that it is expedient to follow the wishes of the people of the local community, how are the directors to know what the wishes are? A great showing of letters, telegrams, petitions, and delegations can be made by a small minority. The board cannot in common sense hold that the voice of the minority makes the way clear. There are some things the board can do. A public hearing to which interested persons are invited to bring their facts can be held. The board can act and then submit their action to a referendum. The board can ask the people to take the initiative, and hold an election. If the board prefers, the matter can be made an issue at a subsequent election where the members are candidates.

If the last course is decided upon the directors should go ahead on the course which their

greater knowledge of the situation and their broader experience shows them to be best, unless by so doing they unduly prejudice the cause in which they believe. If election time is near, they can afford to wait. Generally speaking, though, the board should work out its policies as wisely as it can, and after due consideration go ahead with them. It is a mistake to put every controversial question up to the people, and no really forceful board ever does it.

Relations within the board. — In the preceding chapter a school board member was quoted as saying that his board is nearly always unanimous. This was not given to imply that simply agreeing on every proposition, or even on most propositions, is a virtue. It may mean carelessness or indifference. On questions of fact the board ought to be unanimous. On questions of expediency there is no reason in the world why there should not be differences of opinion.

One city superintendent says that his board of five members has formed all the combinations possible during the year's voting. A, B, and C may be for one measure; D and E against it. The next question that comes up may find A, C, and E aligned against B and D, and so

on. This is a sign that the directors are thinking for themselves, that they are independent, and that the board is not divided into cliques and factions. It is possible for directors to respect each other and still differ on many questions. Yet it goes without saying that a board may be unanimous without being inferior.

In order that each director may know what he is doing, he ought to be given his voting record once or twice a year. If he finds himself always or nearly always voting "No" he may with reason suspect that he is either obstinate or too conservative. If he finds himself frequently standing alone, or usually with the minority, it may signify that he does not have a good grasp of the problems. If, on the other hand, he is always with the majority, it may mean that he is simply good natured, lazy, or, worse, just an ordinary politician. An outsider could not pass a reliable judgment upon a director whose record throws him into either class. It is something for him to think about himself, and he alone should give the explanation. In any case, a director who votes on the basis of the facts needs to worry very little about his record.

Getting the facts. — This assumes, of course, that the directors will have the facts. The board should have some reliable source and method of informing itself. In order to have the fact basis for action, some time will have to elapse between the initiation of a project and its completion. In the case of enterprises which have been long foreseen, the necessary data can be collected and put at the disposal of the directors long before the matter comes to a vote. How this may be done is discussed at some length in the chapter which follows. It suffices now to say that the board should usually depend upon the superintendent to provide the information it needs.

Once in a while it is a good plan to have some one outside the school investigate a problem for the board and report. This is especially true when conditions such as the following prevail:

1. The examination is to be very complete and thorough.
2. There is no one in the school system who can spare the time for the investigation.
3. Comparisons with other schools on an extensive scale are needed.
4. The problem under investigation has been in contro-

versy, and there is a likelihood that figures collected by a local person would be questioned or their fairness disputed.

5. Expert judgment as well as facts is required.

6. A general policy which is to serve as a guide for several years is being determined.

7. The reliability of local investigations is being tested.

What has been given is a description of a school survey. There are a few school boards and a few superintendents that are afraid of school surveys. They have the idea that the purpose of the survey is to "get somebody." This is an erroneous idea insofar as it applies to reputable men in education. Their concern is the welfare of their client, the schools. It is hard to see how the schools can be made to suffer because a survey brings to light that the pupils stand lower than the average in arithmetic, that new buildings should be constructed, that the teaching corps has been well trained, and administration is conducted along business lines. In other words, a survey is nothing more than an unusually careful attempt to find out pertinent facts about the schools and suggest methods of remedying weakness.

There are times when facts do not exist or are not available. Under such circumstances,

the only thing the board can do is to base its action upon the best judgment it can get. The board should do its best to have facts and figures at hand, but it also always needs to mix some thinking with its facts. Citizens are willing to advise the board upon questions in which they are informed. The experience of other directors can be obtained for the asking. In addition, there is expert opinion to be had from colleges and universities. On the whole, there is no need of any board rushing into action blindly.

Board publicity. — As the term “publicity” is used here it refers only to news and information given out concerning the proceedings of the board. The rule should be to keep the public fully informed as to what the board is doing. The meetings should in almost all cases be open and public. The books of the secretary or clerk should be available to public examination at any and all times. Frequent formal reports should be made to the patrons. These should tell briefly what the board’s program is, what has been accomplished, and how the school money has been expended. An earnest effort should be made to put these reports in language which the people can understand.

The usual report put out by the ordinary accountant will not meet this test. It seems to confuse and anger people, not to inform them. It may make the public suspicious. Thus in one city a man wrote to the clerk, after the annual report had appeared, this rather typical reaction:

I tried to make out what the report was about because I wanted to know why my taxes went up so regularly each year. It reminded me of a smoke screen. A smoke screen is used to hide something.

And of the same report a woman declared:

I could not understand it, so was sure there was some skull-duggery going on.

If there is any translation and any explanation necessary before a report is understandable the time to make it is before it appears in print. A report of the kind mentioned is not good publicity at all.

Directors should in general refrain from giving out interviews or statements concerning what the board has done. Especially should they refrain from telling what the board is going to do. If reporters want news, refer them to the official minutes, or give them the bare facts without comment. When important action has been decided upon, the directors should authorize one

of their number to make a statement about it to the public. Criticism of one's fellow directors should not be expressed openly as long as one is serving on the board. Every member should realize that he bears his share of the responsibility for the majority action whether he was with the majority or not. There is no plainer ear-mark of a weak official than the habit of shifting the blame for unpopular group action to others, while he tells how he would have done it differently if he had been permitted.

Improving meetings. — Some school boards have followed routine practice so long that they do not know whether their meetings are good or not. On this account they ought to check up on their methods occasionally, and when defects are revealed, try to remove them. It would be very much worth while to have the secretary keep a check for a few meetings on such points as the following and report results to the board. What to do in case of an adverse report on any item is quite clear:

1. How often meetings are held.
2. How long meetings last.
3. How much time it takes to get the meetings under way.

4. Amount of time spent in discussion by each member and total time so spent.

5. Amount of time given to each division of the order of business.

6. Number of cases of absences and tardiness of each, and the total.

7. Amount of business left unfinished or carried over.

8. Vote of each member, and alignment.

9. Nature of the facts submitted and examined.

10. Number of reversals of action, by whom, and upon what measures.

11. Occasions of the absence and tardiness of each member. (This is to find out whether they stayed away to escape taking a stand on some question or not.)

After finding out what is wrong the board should courageously go about the task of making improvements. The members will then find far more satisfaction in their work. As it is, when boards know their methods are inferior, they will often patiently endure rather than make a disturbance. Because of this tendency to stay in the rut a reformer is needed on a school board about once every ten years. There is another opportunity for a needed change without the consequent unpleasantness which a reformer often brings. This is when a new board is elected. The chairman and his associates can

then initiate a new order of affairs without hurting any one's feelings.

Summary. — The school director has authority only when in the regularly called meeting. The power and efficiency of the board depends, therefore, upon its developing good working methods. It should have a regular place of meeting that is convenient, comfortable, and suitable to the purpose. Meetings should be held at regular times, but not too often. They should begin at the time set and should not last over an hour and a half. Cases of absence and tardiness should be recorded, and the attendance record of each member tabulated at regular intervals.

A systematic order of business should be followed. This should be drawn up only after an examination of the list of duties which the board actually performs. Debates and discussions should be limited, as they add few facts and do not as a rule make for harmony. Full information upon the subjects being considered ought to be at hand, and action should be consistent with the facts. Care should be taken in selecting a chairman and a secretary. The latter should be under the direction of the city super-

intendent of schools in the larger districts. Publicity should be properly controlled and should represent the board, not the individual giving it. The methods of the board should be examined occasionally, and reforms in procedure introduced as they are required.

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CHAPTER IV

PLANNING THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

The importance of planning. — In chapter ii the elements which enter into the administration of a school were classed as determinative and executive. The first, the determinative, was defined as the especial function of the school board. This signifies that the board determines what work is to be done and the conditions under which the work is to be done. It is the foundation upon which successful schools rest. Minor mistakes may be made in executive action without serious loss to any one. Errors of any kind in fundamentals are serious and often cannot be repaired save through a complete overhauling of the whole administrative machine. As schools become more complex it becomes more and more difficult to get men and women capable of meeting the exacting demands for judgment, foresight, courage, intelligence, and experience which decisions on the larger aspects of school policy demand.

Planning means in essence the exercise of foresight. It begins with a consideration of what to do and ends when decision as to ways and means has been reached. Whether the plan is practicable or not depends upon the vision of the planning body, upon its knowledge of educational aims, and upon its ability to shape effort toward the approved aims. This means that plans should not be hastily made; instead, the directors should have considered all the possible lines of effort before adopting one. The more complete and perfect the adjustments made in the earlier stages of planning, the fewer the complications and the less the necessity for adjustments at a later stage.

School boards will often save themselves a great deal of trouble, therefore, if they will only think things through before launching a new proposal. Thus they will be ready for most of the difficulties as they arise. It is too much to expect that any plan will be perfect, of course, no matter how much skill and intelligence is given to its formulation. Even with the greatest care some defects in the plan will not appear until it is being put into practice. This fact should not cause any one to become discour-

aged; rather, the directors should understand from the first that they will encounter certain unforeseen obstacles. If they hesitate and delay action because they do not feel sure of smooth sailing ahead, they will never do anything. Overcaution is fatal to action.

Types of planning methods. — Engineers find that there are two methods of planning. The first they call empirical; the second they call statistical. The first is based upon experience and opinion; the second upon known and verified facts. The first is often the only method which the board can use. Lacking definite facts, and in the presence of something which must be done, the directors have no recourse but to use experience and opinion for what they are worth. If there are several things any one of which may be done it will not always be possible to tell exactly which is the most valuable. If there are several ways of doing a piece of work, it will not always be possible to say which is best. If a task is contemplated by the board, it will often not be possible to predict accurately what it will cost, when it will be finished, or whether the district has the resources to finance it.

The statistical method is superior to the empirical because it depends upon recorded and verified facts. It uses, therefore, the results of a wide range of experience, not of a single isolated experience. The facts ought to cover the best experience and not the worst if they are to be used as a guide. With reliable recorded data on hand the board may predict the results of any action far more accurately. As has been said "predictions based upon facts are inestimably superior to rule of thumb estimates." In addition, if a good plan has been worked out once and put on record it can be used again and again for similar undertakings. As a practical fact, the two methods may be subdivided into four grades or degrees of value, the first being the best, the fourth the poorest as bases for prediction:

1. Facts covering many typical cases.
2. Facts covering few but carefully directed experiments.
3. Data covering few cases reinforced by the judgment of competent authorities.
4. Data covering the experience and judgment of a few individuals.

Plan and policy. — Plan and policy are often used to mean the same thing. There is no

objection at all to this, but for present purposes it is necessary to distinguish between the two terms. In this discussion, therefore, "plan" will be used as a term of broader meaning than policy. It is the whole working scheme, embracing all of the determinative functions. When combined with the details for executing the plan, we have the educational program. Policy, on the other hand, is a part of the plan. It has to do with the expediency, practicality, and morality of a projected course of action. The board may adopt a dozen policies in working out one plan. Its policies may be either temporary or permanent. A plan, on the contrary, is permanent.

An illustration may help to make the difference clear. Suppose the board to be engaged in working out a plan for selecting employees. In doing this, it may adopt such policies as the following: (1) no married women employed, (2) only normal school and college graduates accepted as teachers, (3) a single salary schedule, and (4) local applicants not considered. It is seen that quite a number of policies may have to be promulgated in a single plan. It may be said that the board should have clearly defined

and recorded policies on many subjects. They should be available at all times. New directors, in particular, will be helped by knowing what issues have been passed upon and settled, and criticisms can be answered by showing that the board follows consistent policies.

The board ought not, however, hold its policies as something sacred. It should not feel offended if its policies are occasionally criticized and questioned. The policies may be mistaken. It is proper, from time to time, to reopen the issues underlying them. Here is a board, say, that holds to the policy of not employing married women as teachers. Some one questions its judgment in doing this. Under such circumstances there is no reason why the board should not reopen the question and give it fresh consideration. Since it is a justifiable assumption that the board has framed a policy only after careful investigation and impartial deliberation, it is quite right to require that there be new facts before old issues are again discussed. Otherwise, much time will be taken up in threshing over old straw, and the directors will have no time for new and constructive activities.

Steps in planning. — There are, roughly speaking, four steps in planning. They involve deciding upon what, when, who, and how, or, in other words, deciding upon

1. What to do.
2. When to begin, what to do first, when to finish, etc.
3. Who is to carry out the plan.
4. How the plan is to be carried out; that is, the methods to be used.

Planning what to do. — The board will never find that its schools are perfect. The time never comes when school directors can sit back and say: "There is nothing to do." On the contrary, they will find tasks of many kinds needing their attention. They will find that after an objective has been agreed upon there are many ways by which it may be attained, each with facts and arguments in its favor, each with its corps of faithful supporters convinced that there is but one right way. How to select what is best to do is the problem.

The first rule should be to consider local needs as revealed by a local survey. It is quite true that good ideas and practices are often brought in from other schools. However, if it is true that practices that are successful in one

school can be changed to another with equally good results, it is because conditions in the two schools are much alike. If the two school situations are widely different, the new idea may not succeed in the new environment, just as plants often will not grow well when taken from their native habitats to new conditions. Some modification, some working over, is generally required before an imported plan is adapted to local needs.

This point is not easy to illustrate convincingly. Suppose, however, that all aspects of the work of the local school are not equally strong. The teaching force stands close to the top, the organization is nearly as good, while the curriculum and the buildings are out of date. It would not seem wise for the board to center on improving the teaching force and upon bringing in a new form of organization when the crying needs are for a new course of study and a modern school plant. An attempt should be made to keep all the parts equally strong. If a weak link can be repaired or replaced by bringing in a model from another school, well and good. In any event, what to do is determined by what is needed.

The second rule should be to distribute effort

wisely. In general, this means that all phases of the school work will be well provided for: administration and supervision, instruction, housing and equipment, research, accounting, and all the other necessities. Complexity of organization, system for its own sake, heavy overhead, and all superficial and highly contingent attractions known as "fads and frills, and sideshows" should be reduced to the minimum. All effort should tend to focus at the point where desired educational results are obtained, and this is the point where teacher, pupil, and society meet.

The third rule should be to rely upon the fact basis. The board should have a thorough and complete knowledge of local needs and conditions. If a research department or a corps of inspectors is required to supply these facts, the board is justified in employing them. As this problem of keeping informed on school needs is one upon which every other step in planning is dependent, a more detailed discussion is offered later. We shall now turn to an illustration of how to plan what to do.

First step illustrated. — The experience of a medium sized city may be cited to illustrate

the planning of what to do. The report of the city superintendent to the board revealed three main needs: (1) new buildings, (2) vocational training, and (3) a research and welfare department. After weighing the issues, the directors decided the building program should have the right of way.

After agreeing upon a building program, the board learned there were many special ways to carry out the objective, each with arguments in its support. After eliminating some of the less practical ideas, three main ways remained:

1. A new high school building and several new grade buildings might be constructed.

2. The board might build two large junior high school buildings, to which would be sent all the seventh and eighth grade pupils in the city and the ninth grade pupils from the high school. This move would relieve congestion in both departments.

3. It would be possible to construct a new high school and enlarge the grade school buildings, further increasing their capacity by installing the platoon plan of organization.

In deliberating over these three possible solutions of the problem, the board kept three questions in mind. They were:

1. Which is the best plan from the point of view of educational results?

2. Which is the most economical plan?
3. Which is the most expedient plan?

Investigations of the three ideas were next carried out. Without summarizing the sources of data, suffice it to say that the following conclusions were reached:

1. The grade school idea has many objections. It is being rapidly supplanted by other forms of organization. So far as cost is concerned it will involve as big an outlay as the junior high schools and give no marked advantages. It has some disadvantages. Only a narrow formal course of study is possible with it. It does not hold the attendance of the pupils nor does it prepare them for life.

2. The junior high school plan is found in almost all the other cities of the state. It is making rapid progress throughout the country. It has the indorsement of competent authorities. It would fit in well with local needs, and would offer some good talking points when the problem of raising money for the buildings arises. It would be possible to introduce many modern ideas in organization, the curriculum, teaching methods, and especially to bring in vocational guidance and vocational training. One such school in the foreign section of the city would serve as a social center and for night school classes, besides offering playground facilities for the children of the neighborhood the year round.

3. The platoon plan is more economical. It could be introduced at a smaller initial expense, and maintenance costs could be kept below the costs for a junior high school.

It tends to extend the advantages of a modern school to all the grades, and not simply to the seventh, eighth, and ninth. However, the plan is almost unknown to most of our citizens. There are some who would oppose it because of mistaken ideas as to its purpose, and it would be difficult to get an appropriation. It is new to the teachers. No school in the state is organized on the platoon basis.

4. All things considered, it would be better to adopt the junior high school plan.

Planning when to do it. - After deciding upon what to do the next step is to decide when to do it. There are two factors in this aspect of planning. The first takes up the question of when the work is to commence and when it is to be finished. The second deals with the question of what is to be done first, second, third, and so on to the last. Sequence, as this aspect is called, is usually determined by two elements: (1) the nature of the task itself, and (2) the psychology of the community. Thus it is the nature of the task which causes one to lay the foundation of a house before putting up the superstructure, while it is the psychology of the community which causes a school board to educate the people to the needs for and advantages in the junior high school before announcing a determination to introduce it.

The second step illustrated. — The second step in planning may be illustrated by continuing the experience of the school board previously mentioned:

1. Short-time planning is seen in the fact that the board decided to erect two junior high school buildings at once. This meant that the work must begin immediately, with the understanding that within two years from the date that construction commenced the buildings would be completed.

2. Long-time planning was shown in the fact that the board adopted the policy of junior high school organization. It opened up the need of planning for future buildings, of selecting a new type of teacher, of making a new curriculum, and of providing a new type of supervision. Six to ten years would be required before the preliminary stage of the movement would be completed.

3. The next step was to decide upon order or sequence. The first thing the board did was to obtain options on suitable building sites. Next, the people were educated to the value of the junior high school idea. The third step was the campaign for funds. Had almost any other order been followed, the plan would have failed.

Selecting agents and executives. — The third step in planning is to decide by whom the new tasks are to be performed. Whenever a new educational program is introduced, or changes made in an old one, new workers must be added and changes made in the duties of old workers.

It is a serious matter to do these things. If the changes are absolutely new, the board must map out the duties of each worker. Then an effort must be made to find people who fit into the new positions. If the places are desirable (often even if they are not) there will be competition for them. The applicants who are not chosen are likely to feel aggrieved. If a new person is brought in and his duties bring him into close touch with the old-timers in the system, they will often refuse to coöperate and will do everything they can "to freeze him out."

One who accepts a new position, therefore, ordinarily has a period of trial before him. He will have to learn new duties in new surroundings. He will be watched closely for mistakes by the conservative group always ready to cry "I told you so!" The jealous and skeptical ones will refuse to coöperate and will do covertly what they can to bring failure. Under such conditions, it is not surprising if the confidence of the board is shaken a bit. It is at such a time that the members need to bring all their courage and resolution to the support of the new undertaking until it has been given a fair trial. The

strong members must encourage the timid and keep them from giving up.

The likelihood of difficulties ahead should not deter the board members from bringing in new material and embarking on new enterprises. They will also have difficulties if they try to hang on to old practices. It is far better to face trouble while trying to make improvement than to have it creep up behind one while he is guarding the out-of-date and decrepit machinery of the past.

The first aim in employing workers is to get loyalty and competence. Some boards and some superintendents are accused of being afraid to get strong and capable subordinates for fear they will be superseded in public esteem by the newcomers. This is a mistaken idea. Executives who have made conspicuous successes have always surrounded themselves with able assistants. There is pretty good evidence that an administrator feels happiest when he has men around him who are on his own level. A strong administrator will pick out strong aids. A weak one will surround himself with incompetents like himself.

As this subject will be treated at greater

length in the succeeding chapter, little more will be said here. A few general principles which should accompany the selection of employees deserve to be mentioned: namely,

1. In the very early stages of planning, the directors should consider whether the workers needed to realize the plan are available.

2. If they are not available, members of the force should be selected and put in training for the new positions.

3. Ability being equal, it is better to select the new workers from the regular force than to bring in new material.

4. Usually it is unwise to assign any one to the new task who is opposed to the plan, or who has a grievance against any one associated with its realization.

5. Means ought to be supplied for giving those appointed to new duties an opportunity for further training after they begin service.

The third step illustrated. — The third step in planning may also be illustrated from the same source as the preceding examples. After the school directors decided to adopt the junior high school plan, they looked for some one to take over the direction of the enterprise. They decided to centralize the various duties in one officer. New duties included planning the buildings, correlating the lower grades with the new department, unifying the junior and the senior

high schools, directing the preparation of the new curriculum, selecting and training new teachers, and outlining a course of vocational instruction — all of which were assigned to an assistant superintendent of schools. Luckily, they were able to obtain the services of a man who is a registered architect, a former teacher of vocational mechanics, and a well-trained and efficient educator.

The details of executing the new project were left to him. He visited many junior high schools, inspected their buildings, equipment, and organization, and observed their activities. The educational plan was then drawn up, thoughtfully examined by the superintendent and the board, and, after minor modifications, put into permanent form. The buildings were next planned to fit the already adopted educational program. While they were under construction, the assistant superintendent was busy helping to select teachers, organizing the course of study, and doing other necessary work preparatory to the opening of the new schools. It is plainly seen here that the main task of the board in step three was to select a competent executive and then leave the detailed work to him.

Planning methods. — Method includes two chief elements. The first may be called technique, the second finance. Both of these elements involve selection just as do the other steps. There is seldom one best method, just as there is seldom one best thing to do, one best time to do it, and one best person to manage it. It is usually wise to put down on paper all the possible methods of doing a thing. Then one should proceed to cross out those that are plainly not worthy of consideration. This will likely reduce the total to two or three, and it is then, perhaps, not hard to make a choice. It is this failure to make the issue clear that results in confusion, delay, and disagreement. Some people are so taken up with the “if”s and “and”s of a case that they never get down to brass tacks. A few important principles to observe are given below:

1. If unable to agree upon a point of policy or upon a method when there are several equally good, toss a coin.
2. If unable to agree upon what is best, leave the decision to a fair outside authority.
3. Never give time to the discussion of non-essentials. If some one puts up an issue, consider “What difference does it make?” any way it is decided. If it makes no difference, forget it.

4. Leave all controversial matters to the last, if it is at all possible. A year or so ago a school board held up a building program because the members could not agree upon names for the new structures. This was a matter upon which decision could have been postponed until the buildings were completed.

The fourth step illustrated. — Let us apply our early illustration to method. The board had to determine ways and means of constructing the two junior high school buildings. Under the law, it was necessary to build by contract — on this point there was no choice. The directors did have to decide what type to construct: Should it be one story or more? Should it be of brick, concrete, stone, or wood? Should it be fireproof or nonfireproof? What shape should it be? What style of architecture? These questions were all more or less dependent upon the amount of money they could legally raise and the amount which it would be expedient to raise.

As a first step, the directors agreed (taking the advice of the architect and the superintendent) upon a wood and stucco building, of mission design. The cost was then estimated. There then arose the question "Should the board raise the money by immediate taxation or by

bonding?" If by bonding, what kind of bonds should be issued: term or serial? In what denominations should the bonds be? What rate of interest should they bear? How should they be sold? And where should payments on interest and principal be made? Here was a whole host of problems to be taken up and definitely answered before the project could go forward. Reliable facts were needed on all before the best decision could be made.

How to get the facts. — It is perfectly plain that the board cannot do much constructive planning if its members are ignorant and uninformed on educational matters. Take again the junior high school illustration. How did the board discover that there was a building shortage in the city? How did they find out how large the new buildings should be? How did they discover they could finance the new proposition? Most important of all, how could they know with any certainty that the junior high school plan was the best?

Some agency must be at hand to supply facts as they are required. In this case, the board turned to the city superintendent. The directors knew the sources from which he ob-

tained his facts. They could have verified any item they pleased. On this point, it made no difference whether the facts came from the superintendent or from some other source. The important fact was the presence of reliable data. In larger schools, just as in a large business, a research department is necessary to supply factual matter. It should, of course, be under the city superintendent.

After the board assimilated the facts, it did its main service in acting upon them. Of course, the factor of judgment entered here. If the members had been ignorant and unintelligent, the chances would have been against their making the right decision. The great majority of people, sadly enough, are disinclined to take the initiative in thinking and planning. They prefer to follow plans prepared by others. But even a dull director can recognize facts, and he would be a very foolish one if he refused to follow them. But when it comes to judgment, that is another matter. Only an alert, thinking, independent director can be of any help.

It was seen that there were three possible solutions of the problem. The old-time conservative and the timid director would probably

have stood for the grade school plan. The radical might have suggested some untried scheme which would have resulted in failure. This board was not ultra-conservative; it was not radical. It was progressive. The directors were willing to receive new ideas. They weighed the respective merits of each proposal, and then each formed for himself an independent judgment which was recorded in his vote. The result was that the majority favored the junior high school. They might have taken the platoon plan without being in the wrong. Their decision turned on a minor point of expediency.

A useful device. — Devices which help directors to keep acquainted with what is going on in the school are not very numerous. Superintendent W. E. Wiley gives one which owes its origin to an enterprising school board.

The directors were provided with large loose-leaf notebooks. The superintendent supplied them with mimeographed material about the school, and this was kept in the notebooks. The material included such as the following:

1. A list of the rules and regulations in force.
2. A personnel chart with lines of promotion indicated.
3. A chart showing the plan of administrative organization and the lines of authority.

4. A map of the district showing the location of the schoolhouses, the trend of city growth, etc.

5. The annual budget, with supplementary reports from the treasurer, giving the expenditures and balances to date.

6. The minutes of each meeting in proper order.

7. Abstracts of reports from the superintendent's office showing progress and conditions in the schools.

8. Facts bearing upon problems under consideration.¹

What a state inspector recommends. — There is only one other writer who has given specific suggestions on how the board may keep informed. This is Professor J. B. Edmondson. While going about his duties as state high school inspector for the University of Michigan, he was asked by a president of a school board how to get business methods in board meetings, and "how to get away from the kind of meetings given over to correcting the minutes, auditing petty bills, and hearing reports on trivial matters?" In his reply, Mr. Edmondson assumes it is the purpose of the board to acquaint itself with "the facts concerning local conditions, needs, and tendencies, and also to inform itself of ideals, standards, and tendencies in the edu-

¹ Wiley, W. E. "Keeping the School Board Informed"; *American School Board Journal*, LXX, 49-50.

cational world." On this basis he makes the following recommendations:

1. The superintendent put into the hands of the directors copies of the minutes, and abstracts of reports a week before each meeting.

2. That a subscription to the *American School Board Journal* be paid for by the board for each director.

3. That the superintendent visit at least three good schools each year at times most convenient to him and report to the board on all his observations.

4. That he also report on all state and national meetings attended.

5. That the board members attend at least one educational meeting every year, and send a representative to the annual conference of school directors.

6. That every member give a half day a year to visiting the local schools with the superintendent.

7. That the officers of the parent-teachers association appear before the board once a year with recommendations concerning school needs.

8. That the superintendent submit reports occasionally concerning the schools and the progress of the pupils as measured by standard tests.

9. That the superintendent's report be heard immediately after roll call and the reading of the minutes.¹

Coöperation in planning. — Considerable help in planning may be obtained from community forces. Both individuals and organizations may

¹ Edmondson, J. B. — "How a School Board Member Can Inform Himself on Educational Matters"; *American School Board Journal*, LXIII, 42.

be applied to. There is almost no danger that such action will lead to interference by outsiders. It is known that the final responsibility rests with the board, and that it is right in making the final decision. There are several kinds of advantages from coöperative planning. First, it causes people to feel more kindly disposed toward the schools. When they see that the school directors are open-minded, tolerant, and willing to listen to suggestions they support the schools better. They do not have confidence in an autocratic board. In addition, the people learn something by trying to get their ideas in practice.

Second, the suggestions offered are often genuinely valuable. For example, if the board contemplates putting in a system of moral training, the local ministers should have useful suggestions to offer. The teachers should be able to give help in preparing a new salary schedule, or in outlining a pension plan. The labor and employment forces should have hints on vocational training. Bankers should advise on financing a building program. Although it is possible to overdo this idea, by making it too cumbersome and time-consuming, yet if its place

is rightly understood, it will strengthen the schools greatly in the community.

Coöperation with responsible organized groups should always be encouraged. Such bodies should be requested to appoint committees to confer with the board on educational problems, and should be appealed to for advice when questions within their respective provinces arise. Some authorities recommend that the directors send a formal letter each year to local groups asking for constructive suggestions for bettering the schools. There may be nothing of value forthcoming, but the psychological effect of such a policy is almost always good. Finally, whenever a special campaign really develops, the directors should put the contemplated program before all the interested organizations they can reach and ask for support.

Principles of educational planning. — Education has not yet reached the point of perfection where it claims that thoroughly reliable principles have been developed to govern every aspect of planning. It is somewhat more modest than engineering and industry in this respect. Nevertheless, there are several rules that are dependable enough to illustrate the

process of planning. In order, they comprise the following:

1. The selection of what to do.
2. The determination of the feasibility of the ideas projected.
3. The selection of the agencies necessary to effect the purpose.
4. The combination of the personal elements in an organization.
5. The maintenance of active coöperation on the part of the workers.
6. The organization of the non-personal elements.
7. A selection of methods and devices to be utilized.
8. Persistence in keeping the process under way until it is completed.

These require that plans meet such specifications as these:

1. Be based upon objective data; that is, facts and figures.
2. Be simple and understandable.
3. Be tried out imaginatively before being tried actually.
4. Minor details left undecided until decisions are necessary.
5. Definite guiding policies be adopted as rapidly as possible.
6. Proper sequence be followed in planning and execution.
7. The workers should understand the plan and sympathize with it.

8. Outside coöperation should be utilized as far as feasible.

Summary. — Every authority on education concedes that planning is a function of the board. By planning is meant deciding what the school shall do and how it shall do it. The statistical basis of planning is more reliable than the experience basis, but often the latter must be depended upon. There are four steps in planning: (1) what to do, (2) when, (3) by whom, and (4) how. Since facts are essential to wise planning, the board stands in need of some practical method of obtaining and recording facts. In general, it will be forced to depend upon its employees for the needed data. As a last point, it is observed that the board should obtain the active coöperation of the people of the community in developing its plans and in putting them into realization.

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CHAPTER V

MANAGING SCHOOL FINANCES

Finances and efficiency. — If one were to name the factors indispensable for good schools, he could not omit teachers, buildings, equipment, supervision, etc. He would at once observe that all of these essentials cost money; none of them are to be obtained for the mere asking. The situation is identical with that which exists in business. The business man must have capital to provide stock, buildings, equipment, and labor. The more wisely a business is financed, the better are its chances for success. Likewise, a business may fail, not because it is unworthy in any way, but because it is insufficiently or improperly financed. A school is no exception to the rule that no business enterprise can succeed unless its money affairs are well managed.

Again, if one considers increasing the size of the school, or of improving its efficiency, the financial factor comes to the front. The improvement program, let us say, calls for better

teachers, better supervision, better equipment, and better buildings. With this demand, goes the need of more funds. The principle of educational progress takes the form of a cycle, an increase in finances being required before each new cycle may be taken up. This may be illustrated in the following way: ¹

First cycle

Supervision

Books and equipment

Buildings

Teaching

Administration

Second cycle

More money

More and better supervision

More and better books and equipment

More and better buildings

More and better teaching

More and better administration

Third cycle

More money

More and better supervision

Continue to repeat *ad infinitum*

¹ Chancellor, William E. — *Our Schools — Their Administration and Supervision*, pp. 104-105; D. C. Heath & Co., 1904.

Responsibility of the school board. — The money to satisfy the desire for improved schools must be raised by the board. The members should not wait until they are “prodded into making improvements” as a director said was the case in one district. If funds are not at hand to meet new needs as they arise, the schools will soon lag behind and become relatively inefficient. Raising money, spending it wisely, and accounting for it accurately are in fact the most important of all duties devolving upon the board. The duty of spending money and accounting for it can be passed on to the superintendent and other employees; the duty of raising money is an exclusive function of the board, and its most exacting duty. This means that the board members must know the school law thoroughly, the resources of the district, and its financial condition; they cannot spare any effort to get enough money to operate the educational plan successfully.

It is evident, then, to any one that the directors must be good financial managers if the schools are to prosper. A manager may be defined as one who gets things done in the right way. Good management does not mean

acting as a watchdog of the treasury, and tightening the purse strings. Men and women who have been noted successes in business have known how to use money wisely. They have not hesitated to put their capital to work. Directors should, in the same way, put money to work for education. This does not mean that schools will prosper under extravagant management. Just as the speculator and the promoter may ruin a good business, so may they ruin a good school. A director needs first of all to have good business judgment, and, second, the courage to back his judgment with money. The management of school finances may be considered under three heads. Directors should know

1. How to raise money for the schools.
2. How to spend money wisely.
3. How to account for money accurately and clearly.

Raising money — sources of funds. — The sources of school funds may be classified in two ways: (1) according to the political unit from which they are derived, and (2) according to the method by which they are derived. Four political units contribute to school funds; namely,

- | | |
|-----------------------|---------------|
| 1. The local district | 3. The state |
| 2. The county | 4. The nation |

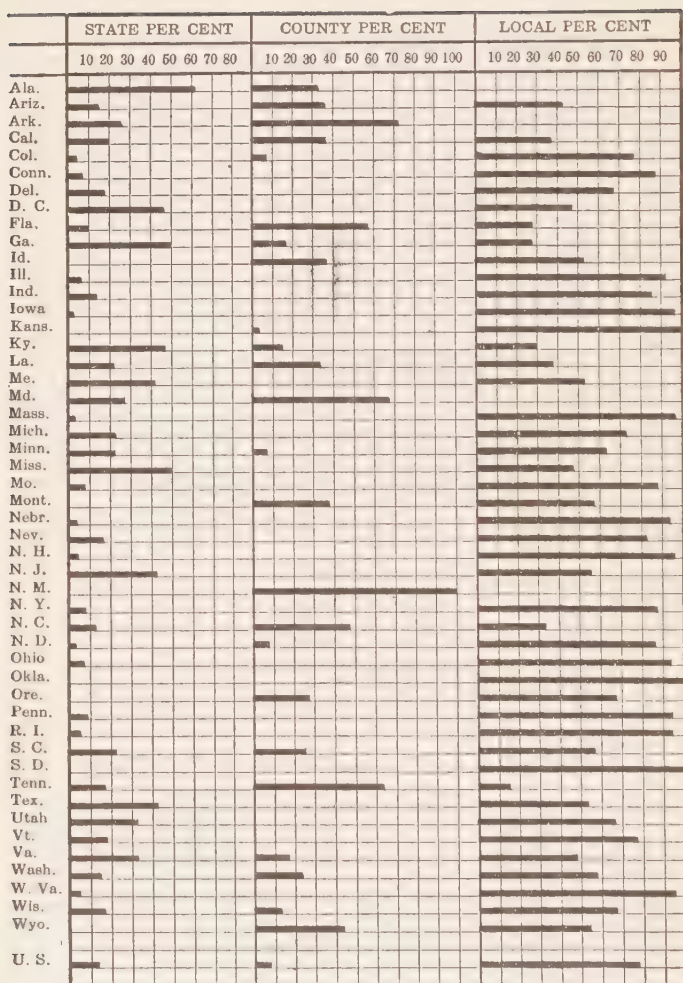


CHART III. — Sources of school revenues by states (from the United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 11, 1920).

Chart III shows how much is raised from the first three sources named—local, county, and state, for each of the forty-eight states. The proportion which comes from the United States is so small that it is not shown separately

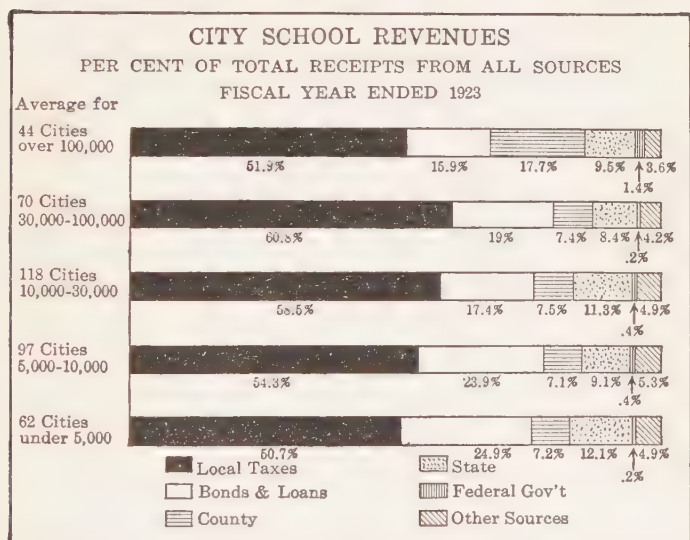


CHART IV. — From Research Bulletin, Vol. II, Nos. 1 and 2, National Education Association, p. 59, January and March, 1924.

in the chart. Chart IV gives the facts for 391 cities, large and small. No city draws more than 1.4 per cent of its revenue from the United States, though there are several consolidated schools which draw more. On the whole, the

United States is a minor factor in school support.

The contribution of the nation is the result of a special agreement with the states. Under this agreement, the Federal government pays one-half the salaries of the teachers engaged in Smith-Hughes work, a type of vocational education comprising shop mechanics, agriculture, and home economics. A relatively small number of districts profit by government aid. This is rather surprising in view of the interest in vocational education, and the fact that because the states pay half the costs, every taxpayer helps maintain Smith-Hughes work whether his own district gets the benefit of the plan or not.¹ The steps in the process of establishing Federal aided schools is as follows:

1. The state, through the legislature, accepts the proposal of the United States and proceeds to appropriate funds to pay its half of the cost of Smith-Hughes work.
2. The state, through its board of vocational education, draws up a list of requirements which the local boards must meet in order to receive Federal and state funds.
3. The local districts meet the requirements and proceed to draw on the state for the funds to which they are

¹ Every state in the Union has accepted the proposal of the United States, and created a board of vocational education. About 500,000 pupils are at present enrolled in Federal aided schools, and the annual appropriation of the national government is a little more than seven million dollars.

entitled, the state in turn collecting from the United States.

It is obvious that the local districts bear an inordinate share of the expenses of schools. As there are great differences in the wealth of local districts, inequalities of opportunity result, and the tax burden on some local units is too heavy. An effort should be made by school boards to shift more of the burden to the county and state, and enlarged National aid is doubtless desirable. With the state bearing from forty to fifty per cent of the total cost, the county from twenty to thirty, and the district the remainder, schools will be better and more easily financed. Consolidation, the county unit, the state district — all the means by which the taxing unit is enlarged — have the effect of smoothing out inequalities and improving taxing conditions. It may be expected that the larger unit will often result in lower local tax rates; if not, at least it will result in better schools. It is customary to consider state aid only for current expenditures; but some favor it for outlays for buildings and grounds, especially in rural and small town districts.

For several years there has been a strong

campaign under way to increase Federal aid. It is argued that all the reasons for state support apply with equal force to the nation; it is opposed by those who fear Federal control of education. Other reasons for urging such action are given by the adherents of the proposition, as follows:

1. The United States is well able to help support the schools.

2. Many of the special problems of education are Federal in their origin and scope. Examples of these are Negro education, immigrant education, and health education.

3. The United States has a special and direct interest in vocational education. It draws thousands of government employees from the state schools, and in addition is concerned in keeping up a high degree of vocational efficiency as a means of national defense.

4. Federal aid would help greatly to equalize the financial burden, and to equalize educational opportunities. Rural schools, states with large Negro population, and states with large foreign population would doubtless profit the most by Federal aid.

Raising money — methods. — There are three chief methods of raising money. They are (1) taxation, (2) endowments by public and private agencies, and (3) miscellaneous, including bequests, fines and forfeitures, and sales of

property. Fully ninety-two per cent of all the money expended for schools comes from taxes; miscellaneous sources account for about five per cent; and the remainder comes from state and national endowment; that is, from the income of permanent funds. These permanent funds are often called "the children's savings bank account." A portion of the ninety-two per cent is realized from the sale of bonds, but bonds are nothing but a form of deferred taxation.

Since so large a proportion of the school income is raised from taxes, the directors should be alive to the tax situation. Each director should know what the tax rate for schools is, what rate of valuation it is levied upon, what kind of wealth is taxed, how the school tax rate compares with the rate for other public purposes, and how it compares with the rate in similar districts. It would be worth while to know what items of district wealth are escaping taxation, but this is a subject on which information is kept concealed.¹ The director should not decide that the district rate is too high until he

¹ Estimates of the United States Treasury Department (1920) placed the bill for luxuries for the year in this country at approximately \$215 per capita. The same year the per capita expenditure for schools was approximately \$10.36. It does not seem from this that the country is being too heavily burdened for education. See figures on page 150.

PURPOSES	PER CAPITA COSTS (Approximate)
Luxurious foods and delicacies	\$50.00
Joy riding, boxing, and pleasure resorts	30.00
Luxurious services	30.00
Automobiles and parts	20.00
Tobacco	20.00
Carpets and luxurious clothing	15.00
Candy	10.00
Theater admissions	7.50
Luxuries in hotels and restaurants	7.50
Perfumery and cosmetics.	7.00
Toilet soaps	4.00
Soft drinks	3.25
Confections	3.25
Furs	3.00
Ice-cream	2.50
Pianos and phonographs	2.50
Total cost of luxuries per capita	\$215.50
Total cost of education per capita	\$10.36

has the facts on two points. The first of these is the percentage which the assessed valuation is of the real valuation, and the second the rate on real valuation compared with the rate on real valuation in several comparable districts.

It will not be surprising if he finds that in his district property is assessed at no more than thirty per cent of its real valuation, though the tendency is to assess at from fifty to sixty per cent. In cities, it will run higher than in the rural areas. A low rate of assessment tends to make the tax rate seem excessively high, while in an adjoining state with a high assessment,

the rate may appear very low. This may be seen from the table below. In this district with a real valuation of two million dollars, the tax rate ranges from three to ten mills depending upon its assessment rate, the amount to be raised remaining the same in every case:

ASSESSED VALUATION	PER CENT OF REAL VALUATION	AMOUNT TO BE RAISED	RATE IN MILLS
\$2,000,000	100	\$60,000	3.0
1,500,000	75	60,000	4.0
1,200,000	60	60,000	5.0
1,000,000	50	60,000	6.0
800,000	40	60,000	7.5
600,000	30	60,000	10.0

In making comparisons between the tax rate of the local district and other districts, this point must be checked up accurately. As seen from the table, as assessed valuations go down the tax rate goes up. People usually are sensitive to tax rates and may ignore the rate of valuation. School boards sometimes get a reputation for economizing over past years by the simple device of raising valuations and lowering the tax rates. The taxes may at the same time actually be higher, the people being deceived by the lower tax rate.

It has been found that assessors generally base their valuations upon the amount of money to be raised. As they do not like to raise the rate, they raise the valuation whenever the board needs more money. There are school districts where the total tax and the tax rate have remained unchanged for years. From such facts an outsider might judge the district was not growing in wealth and that the ability to support schools was low. The chances are that the district wealth has greatly increased, but the assessor has kept assessments down low because the school board has been afraid to ask for more money.

The other factor to consider in judging whether taxes are high or low is the local rate in comparison with the rate in other districts. Figures must be made comparable by reducing valuations to the hundred per cent basis. Other factors, such as per capita wealth and bonded indebtedness, are significant. In the table below is shown a comparison of tax rates in Marietta, Ohio, with the tax rate in other Ohio cities of about the same population. It is seen that Marietta had a low tax rate at the time the study was made.

COMPARISON OF VALUATION, TAX RATES AND BONDED INDEBTEDNESS IN TEN OHIO CITIES¹

CITY	PER CAPITA WEALTH	RANK	TAX RATE TOTAL	RANK	SCHOOL TAX RATE	RANK	PER CAPITA BONDS FOR SCHOOLS	RANK
Cleveland Heights.	\$5,642	1	2.10	5	1.295	1	\$319.51	1
Massillon .	2,696	2	2.00	7	.725	5	25.19	7
Findlay .	2,596	3	1.48	10	.4	10	51.96	3
Ashtabula	2,167	4	2.06	6	.9695	2	39.44	4
Marietta .	1,651	5	1.85	9	.61	8	1.19	10
Ironton .	1,534	6	2.11	4	.655	7	64.25	2
Piqua . .	1,450	7	2.25	2	.5768	9	30.31	6
Chillicothe	1,421	8	2.00	8	.6887	6	7.26	9
Barberton	1,309	9	2.38	1	.857	4	37.94	5
Bellaire .	1,162	10	2.18	3	.942	3	14.41	8

Raising money by bonding. — Bonding is a common method of raising school funds, especially for paying for sites, schoolhouses, and equipment. Since bonds are paid from tax levies ultimately, bonding is simply a method of deferring levies. It does not mean a decrease in taxes. On the other hand, since interest must be paid for the use of the money borrowed, it means higher taxes than would have been necessary had the board followed the

¹ Adapted from P. R. Stevenson — *A Building Program for Marietta, Ohio*, p. 53; Bureau of Educational Monographs, Ohio State University, Columbus, 1924, p. 53.

“pay-as-you-go” policy. It is not always possible to do this, however, and there is some advantage in distributing the payments over a long period. At least, it lessens the strain for any year.

Good financial managers are becoming more favorable year by year to the “pay-as-you-go” policy, declaring that public indebtedness is often allied with slipshod methods and even with extravagance. The psychological effect is bad, they say. Investors fight shy of communities that are bonded to the limit and that are paying out large sums for debt service. They hold there is little validity to the argument that succeeding generations which will use the buildings and grounds should help pay for them. Each generation has enough burdens of its own without having to assume any from its predecessors. Except as an unavoidable necessity, the arguments for bonds are valid only to those who are looking for investments. Yet as matters stand, less than a dozen cities are financing buildings by the cash payment plan.

The main reason for this is that the large expenditures required for modern building cannot be met except by bonding. Sometimes the

law does not permit the use of any other method. Sometimes the valuation is so low that a tax levy high enough to pay for outlays in one year would result in many being unable to pay their taxes. People often prefer to distribute their payments over a long period, even if the total they pay is greater. A very good argument for supporting a building program is that the annual increase in taxes will be so slight as to inconvenience no one. Therefore, since conditions usually make it necessary and expedient to issue bonds, the thing to do is to submit, taking due precautions to protect the district in the process.

Types of bonds. — Bonds are classified as (1) serial and (2) term. Serial bonds are paid in a series of one or more each year until all are paid, commencing soon after the date of issue, ordinarily not less than one year nor more than five years. Two years after issue is a good time to begin payment, and the whole series should be paid off in from twenty to twenty-five years. Thus if a district issues \$40,000 in serial bonds, it may pay them off in twenty years at the rate of \$2,000 a year plus interest. The payments on the principal

are the same each year, but interest payments are heavier the first years. This is a good idea, because later on as buildings get older, maintenance expenses will begin to increase. Serial bonds are more easily sold than term bonds, command a higher price, and are preferred by investors.

Term bonds are so named because they become due and payable at the end of a definite term or period — usually from twenty to thirty years. It is the duty of the school board or other taxing authority to levy a special tax each year for bond redemption. This is deposited in a bank, invested in securities, or put into the hands of a county treasurer, and constitutes what is called a sinking fund. The trouble is that the taxing authorities often forget or neglect to levy the special tax and when the bonds come due there is no money on hand to meet them. When this happens, there is nothing to do but to issue new bonds and sell them, using the money received to take up the old issue, or persuade the investors to take new bonds in the place of the old ones. The district goes on paying interest for another long term, and the schoolhouse for which the bonds were

issued in the first place may fall to pieces before it is paid for.

Sinking funds are a temptation to dishonest officials and may be embezzled. Banks in which funds are deposited may fail; investments may depreciate. Every state has its examples of losses of public money through ignorance, neglect, and dishonesty. Yet there are states where only term bonds can be issued. If this is the case, the directors should take steps to protect the sinking fund. It ought to be invested in safe and easily negotiable securities, or put in the savings bank. If this is not done, the treasurer may invest the funds and revert the income to his own private use. One of the reasons why the offices of city, county, and state treasurer are so hotly contested in some sections is because the officials profit by the use of public funds in their care sometimes to the extent of hundreds of thousands of dollars.

So many problems arise in connection with bonding that they cannot be discussed here. Directors should read such books as Fowlkes, *School Bonds*, cited in the references at the end of this chapter. They should also seek the advice of local financial experts as needed. In conclusion,

several points of signal importance are stated in brief paragraphs, in the form of "Don'ts":

1. Don't put out small bond issues. The taxpayers association of a certain state found that it is quite common for school districts to issue twenty, even thirty year bonds in amounts as small as \$300. It would have been better to care for this need by a special tax. It has been found in a few cases that the expense of election plus the cost of printing, advertising, and selling the bonds equaled a fourth of the value of the issue.

2. Don't issue bonds to pay current expenses. Except in emergencies, the only legitimate excuse for bonds is to buy sites, buildings, and permanent equipment.

3. Don't issue bonds for a longer term than the probable life of the building. Twenty-five years should be the maximum; fifteen to twenty years is better.

4. Don't make the rate of interest too high. The bonds should sell at par. It is not necessary that they command a premium, and they should not sell at any considerable discount.

5. Don't fail to provide for the payment of the bonds at the time of issue. Provide only one place of payment, and let this be some reputable bank in the nearest financial center. Commence to make the tax levies and see that the district funds are safeguarded. Provide money to make the interest payments as soon as due.

School expenditures. — To take care of the schools properly, the board should prepare a definite financial plan. This should give a classified statement of the probable expenditure and

income. Such a statement constitutes the budget, which may be called the educational program expressed in dollars and cents for a period such as a year. It is not sufficient to authorize the raising and expenditure of a lump sum of money. On the contrary, the expected receipts and expenditures should be closely analyzed. After this itemized statement or budget is adopted as the financial plan for the year, it ought to be followed strictly. It goes without saying, that no school board should try to work without a budget.

From the point of view of the ideal, the budget should be prepared and adopted close to the end of the fiscal year. If the year ends on June 30, the new budget ought at least to have been approved by that date. It should not be adopted much earlier, because unexpected needs may arise between the date of its adoption and the date it goes into effect. It should not be much later, since no money can be used until it has been voted in the budget and a period might ensue in which the schools are handicapped for funds. However, school boards also have to take into account the convenience of the taxing authorities, and the state law often requires the prepara-

tion and adoption of the budget three or four months before the end of the fiscal year.

Distribution of expenditures. — The distribution of expenditures will vary with the size of the school and somewhat from year to year in the same school. It is a good idea, nevertheless, to have some standards at hand that will enable one to judge whether any factor is being especially favored or neglected. In the table that follows are found standards approximating practice in three types of schools. Since they are estimates only, they should not be followed slavishly, but they will serve to indicate marked deviations in the local budget from the rule.

APPROXIMATE STANDARDS OF CURRENT EXPENDITURES IN PERCENTAGES FOR THREE TYPES OF SCHOOLS

ITEMS	HIGH SCHOOLS	RURAL SCHOOLS	CITY SCHOOLS
General control . . .	1.0	0.0	3.5
Supervision	0.0	0.0	8.0
Teachers' salaries . . .	73.0	79.5	66.5
Other instructional expenses	4.5	3.5	5.0
Operation	9.0	8.0	10.0
Maintenance	4.0	3.0	4.0
Fixed charges	2.0	1.5	0.9
Auxiliary agencies . . .	3.5	2.5	1.1
Library	2.0	2.0	1.0
Laboratory supplies . .	1.0	0.0	0.0
TOTALS	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

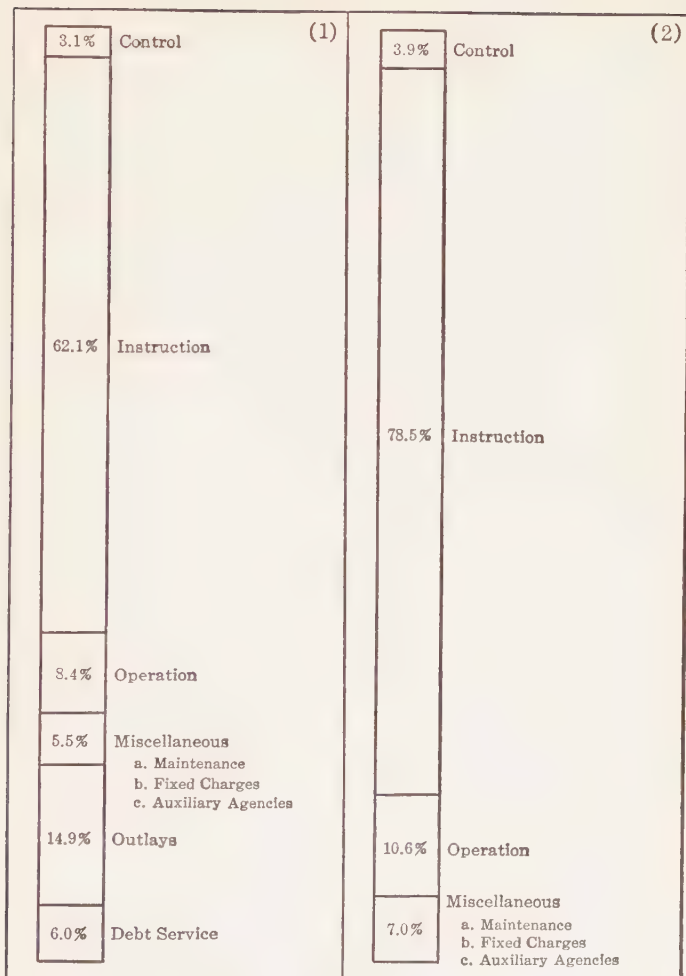


CHART V. — Distribution of city school expenditures: (1) total expenditures; (2) current expenses. (Data from McGaughy, J. R., *The Fiscal Administration of City School Systems*, ch. iii, The Macmillan Company, 1924. Based on 353 cities.)

The budget — by whom prepared. — The budget should be prepared by the board's executive. In rural schools, the estimate may be made by the principal; in city schools by the superintendent. These officials are in close touch with the needs of the school system and should know how much money is required for books, supplies, salaries, operation, fuel, supervision, maintenance, and the like for the ensuing year. It is the duty of the board to pass judgment upon the program which the educational authorities have drawn up, to decide whether it is adequate or not, and whether the financial estimates are too high or too low. Copies of the estimates should be in the hands of the directors a week or two before they vote, and each item should be carefully scanned and compared with the estimates of previous years.

The budget should be administered by the board's executive, the principal in rural schools, the superintendent in city schools. He has no right to modify the budget in any way. Finally, the board should enforce strict accountability. This gives four steps in budgeting, with duties divided as follows:

1. Preparation of the budget. (By the superintendent or other educational authority.)

2. Adoption of the budget. (By the school board.)
3. Administration of the budget. (By the superintendent or other educational authority.)
4. Enforcement of accountability. (By the school board.)

Budget forms. — If the state law requires the budgeting of funds, the proper forms may be obtained from the state department of education. If it does not, the board should prepare its own forms. Suitable forms may be had on request from the United States Bureau of Education. (See also, Bulletin No. 3, 1912.) After a form has been adopted, few changes should be made from year to year, as changes make comparisons difficult. It is a good idea to itemize fairly closely, in order to make easily understandable the purposes for which the funds are to be devoted. In any form, at least the minimum elements given below should be included:

I. *Receipts*

1. From national, state, and county sources
2. From local sources

II. *Expenditures*

1. For current expenses (salaries, fuel, supplies, books, etc.)
2. For debt service (interest, bond redemption, etc.)
3. Capital outlays (buildings, grounds, equipment, etc.)

Form illustrated. — The budget form which follows will be found satisfactory. Its analysis is quite complete, and it conforms in all essentials to the recommendations of the United States Bureau of Education.

SCHOOL BUDGET

Budget for.....School District in.....County,
State of.....
To the.....Superintendent of Schools of.....County,
State of.....
By order of the governing board of the.....School District,
at a regularly held meeting on the.....day of.....192....,
the undersigned authorized the following budget for the school year
ending June 30, 192....

PART I. CURRENT EXPENSES

ITEMS	EXPENDED FOR YEAR 192_-192_	ESTIMATED FOR YEAR 192_-192_
1. General control	\$.....	\$.....
2. Teachers' salaries		
3. Other instructional expenses		
4. Library		
5. Operation of school plant		
6. Maintenance of school plant		
7. Fixed charges		
8. Auxiliary agencies		
TOTAL CURRENT EXPENSES		

PART II. CAPITAL OUTLAYS

ITEMS	EXPENDED FOR YEAR 192_-192_	ESTIMATED FOR YEAR 192_-192_
9. Buildings, sites, equipment	\$.....	\$.....
TOTALS — EXPENSES AND OUTLAYS	\$.....	\$.....

PART I. CURRENT EXPENSES

ITEMS	EXPENDED FOR YEAR 192_-192_	ESTIMATED FOR YEAR 192_-192_
1. <i>General control</i>		
a) Elections and census	\$	\$
b) Clerks' salaries and supplies		
c) Superintendent's office		
d) Attendance department		
2. <i>Teachers' salaries</i>		
a) Salaries regular teachers		
b) Salaries special teachers		
c) Salaries principals		
d) Salaries supervisors		
3. <i>Other instructional expenses</i>		
a) Supplies used in instruction		
b) Textbooks		
c) Miscellaneous expenses		
4. <i>Library</i>		
a) Salary of librarians		
b) Cost of library books		
c) Expenses of book repairs		
d) Miscellaneous expenses		
5. <i>Operation of school plant</i>		
a) Wages of janitors and engineers		
b) Fuel, water, light, power, telephone		
c) Janitors' supplies		
d) Freight and drayage		
e) Miscellaneous expenses		
6. <i>Maintenance of school plant</i>		
a) Upkeep of grounds		
b) Repair of buildings and equipment		
c) Repair of furniture and apparatus		
7. <i>Fixed charges</i>		
a) Rents		
b) Insurance		
c) Interest		
e) Street assessments		

PART I. CURRENT EXPENSES, *continued*

ITEMS	EXPENDED FOR YEAR 192_-192_	ESTIMATED FOR YEAR 192_-192_
8. <i>Auxiliary agencies</i>		
a) School physicians, nurses, and dentists	-----	-----
b) Other expenses of health service	-----	-----
c) School lunches	-----	-----
d) Lectures, debates, athletics	-----	-----
e) Transportation	-----	-----
f) Miscellaneous expenses	-----	-----
TOTAL CURRENT EXPENSES	\$-----	\$-----

PART II. CAPITAL OUTLAYS

ITEMS	EXPENDED FOR YEAR 192_-192_	ESTIMATED FOR YEAR 192_-192_
9. <i>Buildings, sites, equipment, etc.</i>		
a) Purchase of land	\$-----	\$-----
b) Alterations and additions	-----	-----
c) New buildings	-----	-----
d) Improvement of grounds	-----	-----
e) New furniture and equipment	-----	-----
TOTAL CAPITAL OUTLAYS	\$-----	\$-----
TOTALS — EXPENSES AND OUTLAYS	\$-----	\$-----

SIGNED:-----

*President Board of Education**Superintendent of Schools*

To the Board of Commissioners of-----County (City):

I herewith submit with my approval the budget of-----
 School District, together with the following statement of the estimated
 income of said district for the ensuing year:

PART I. CURRENT EXPENSES

Estimated balance on hand in various current expense funds	\$
Estimated receipts from the United States	
Estimated receipts from the state	
Estimated receipts from the county	
Estimated receipts from all other sources	
TOTAL ESTIMATED RECEIPTS FROM ALL SOURCES	\$
Total estimated expenditures as per budget	\$
Total estimated receipts as above	
Total minimum amount to be raised by tax levy	

PART II. CAPITAL OUTLAYS

Estimated balance on hand in various capital outlay funds	\$
Estimated receipts from state	
Estimated receipts from county	
Estimated receipts from all other sources	
TOTAL ESTIMATED RECEIPTS FROM ALL SOURCES	\$
Total estimated expenditures as per budget	\$
Total estimated receipts as above	
Total minimum amount to be raised by special tax levy	

Dated this.....day of.....192.... Signed.....
 County Superintendent of Schools

Accounting. — A system of accounting should be adopted that conforms to the classification used in the budget. It is entirely impracticable to divide the budgetary headings on one basis and the accounting forms on another. The two

must of necessity be adjusted to each other, and, as the budget is really a functional analysis of the schools, it should have the right of way.

The system should be simple. Such forms will be needed as will enable the accounting department to record all current expenditures, all authorizations for purchases, receipts of all items purchased, receipts for payment of bills, and such summaries as will show at any time the total receipts and expenditures and the balances remaining in the respective funds. The minimum forms required are requisitions, bills and receipts books, warrants, inventories, and ledger.

Purchasing. — The purchasing problem is one of the most serious that school officials have to meet. A good many abuses prevail, especially in the smaller schools. One of the worst faults of school board buying is that of purchasing unnecessary things, often for exorbitant prices. Nearly every classroom, attic, and storage closet is cluttered up with impractical and nearly useless items of equipment and apparatus which negligent buyers have provided. Maps, charts, globes, planetariums, and curious devices of

many kinds have been bought by directors while under the spell of shrewd salesmen.¹ As a result there are many criticisms of the kind of school board buying which is all too common: namely,

1. It is charged that school boards buy unnecessary and impractical apparatus which no one uses.²

2. They neglect to buy the necessary and essential.

3. They tend to buy from agents and when not from agents, they buy at retail prices, thus paying too much.

4. They do not investigate the relative merits of items of equipment and furnishing, and as a result do not always get the best quality.

5. They do not buy at the right time and in the right quantities. The schools may suffer for want of supplies.

6. They do not keep a record of orders, receipts, and payments. Material is paid for that is never received; bills are paid twice.

The remedies for bad buying are easy to adopt. First, one person and only one should

¹ Agents have one standard method in dealing with school boards. They take their wares to one member and show them to him. Being busy about his own affairs, the director does not give much attention. Before leaving, the salesmen get the director to say that he does not object to the purchase if the others are willing. The agents then go to the other members of the board individually and repeat the process. Finally all are committed to buying something that nobody wants, and which could not have been sold to a purchasing agent nor to the whole board in session.

² It is just as important that boards do not neglect to provide modern equipment for the offices and the classrooms. The first reason is that the work is done better; the second is that economy results. Filing devices, calculating machines, check writers, duplicators, and similar items of business machinery should be supplied. A business man on the school board will see the value in this suggestion, and can be depended upon to help the thing along.

be made responsible for the purchasing of regular supplies. The superintendent, principal, clerk, or director may serve in a small school; in a large district, there should be a special agent appointed. It should be his duty to determine what price he should pay and where he should buy, and to make the actual purchases according to specifications approved by the board. He should not be allowed to decide what to buy, either as to quality or quantity. He should attend to regular purchasing without special orders, and should see that there are always sufficient supplies on hand. Failure to have materials when they are needed, or to make deliveries promptly, is good evidence of inefficiency on the part of the purchasing agent.

Nothing should be bought without a properly authenticated requisition or purchase order. Requisitions may originate with the agent, principal, superintendent, or other official. They should go from their origin to a central office, probably the superintendent's, and, after being endorsed by him, should go to the purchasing agent, who carries out the instructions contained in the requisition and the rules and regulations of the board. He sees that the goods are de-

livered, and that the transaction is recorded. Large and unusual purchases could well receive the approval of the board and be recorded in the minutes. There is no reason for the directors concerning themselves over the ordinary buying of crayon, erasers, sweeping compound, ink, brooms, and the like, as Ronalson shows in the quotation below:

John would never think of buying the ink or typewriter ribbons for the bank. Neither does he go into the creamery of a morning, and tell the buttermakers how much salt to put into a churning. He believes, that as a director of these institutions, it is his duty to meet with the other directors, select a competent banker as cashier in the case of the bank, and a good buttermaker with executive ability in the case of the creamery, and then hold these men responsible for results.¹

The requisition. — All requisitions should be made out in duplicate, the original given to the person who supplies the goods, and the copy filed to be used as a check on the goods when delivered. No purchase, except in the case of an emergency, should be recognized which has not been registered on a duly signed supply order. Bills should also be rendered in duplicate, one copy retained in the school files,

¹ Ronalson, Peter — "A Budget of Advice for the New School Board Member"; *American School Board Journal*, LXVII, 35-36.

and one attached to the warrant drawn in payment. If this method is followed, a check will be kept on all buying, bills will never be paid more than once, and the exact standing of the budget may be found in a short time. The stub and the original forms of a requisition are given herewith:

Requisition Order No.....	<i>Valley City School District</i>
Date	Requisition Order No.... Date.....
Ordered from..... as follows:	M..... You are authorized to supply to the School (Dept.).... the following items:
For School	Charge to the Valley City School and deliver bill in duplicate on or be- fore the first of next month.
Issued to.....	APPROVED.....
Ordered by.....	<i>Superintendent of Purchasing Agent</i> <i>Schools</i>
Delivered on.....	
SIGNED	

Inventories. -- Inventories seem to be regarded as nuisances in school administration, and, when taken, are likely to be put away

without being used. This will not be true in a school system managed on business principles. The inventories can be turned to account to guide buying: kind of goods, quantity, quality, and price. The inventory serves to check up on the care taken of supplies, apparatus, furniture, and equipment. Inventories are also useful in placing insurance, calculating the worth of assets, and in many other ways.

The stock of supplies should be so arranged and so catalogued that a report of amount on hand and of amount needed can be rendered in a few minutes. It is a good plan to make the inventory a feature of the annual report. Although not all the information will be reported to the public, the inventory sheet should at least provide for the recording of such facts as these:

1. Type or kind and quantity of furniture, apparatus, equipment, etc., on hand
2. Description, including catalogue number, name of seller, trade name, etc.
3. Date of purchase and cost
4. Cost of repairs and additions, etc.
5. Estimated present value
6. Credit through sale
7. Estimated rate of depreciation

Financial statements. — At least once a year, the board should make public a statement of the business affairs of the school. This should be put in simple, untechnical language, such as any one in the district can understand. Such items as the following should be included:

1. The balance sheet, listing:
 - a) All assets of the district, such as cash on hand, buildings, sites, equipment, unsold bonds, etc.
 - b) All liabilities, such as unpaid bills, bonds outstanding, warrants outstanding, temporary loans, and other obligations.
 - c) The net investment of the district in buildings, grounds, and equipment. This is the difference between the obligations for capital outlay and the payments which have been made.
2. A statement of receipts and disbursements for the year. In this should be brought together the principal facts of the budget. It should also show balances remaining from the previous year, and expenditures, with balances remaining at the end of the given year.
3. A statement of costs, showing the total disbursements less the capital outlays. To this total should be added depreciation on school properties, interest on any indebtedness, and interest at a low rate on the investment in school plant and equipment. This total cost should be divided by the number of pupils in attendance, number of pupil-hours, number of teachers, number of days of school, and similar units to give the unit costs of running the school, and make comparison with other schools and with past years in the same school possible.

The complete history of the financial transactions of the year make up the body of the typical annual report. This is almost always required by law, and should be made whether required or not. Full publicity should be given this report, by mimeographing or printing it, and putting a copy into the hands of every patron. The more important facts should be published in the local papers. Needless to say, the report should be as clear and as readable as it can be made, and charts, diagrams, and comparisons freely utilized.

Summary. — If schools are to be efficient they must be well financed. It is the duty of the school board to see that this is done. Every director should know the facts concerning his district: the laws, the financial forms in common use, the sources of school income, and the ability of the district to maintain schools. It should not be the director's purpose to keep the schools from spending money, nor to lead the board into extravagance. Instead, he should try to keep expenditures fairly balanced between needs and abilities. One of the most important measures is to adopt a budget. The second essential step is to see that the budget

is wisely administered. Last of all, there should be a simple but complete system of accounting, and a clear statement of all the financial transactions made to the public.

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The best book on the subject. Treats of budgets, costs, accounting, indebtedness, taxation, etc. Should be read by every school director.

SEARS, JESSE B. — *School Surveys*; Houghton Mifflin Company, 1925.

Contains an excellent chapter on school finance. Gives standards useful in making comparisons.

SMITH, FRANK K. — "How a District Can Obtain the Best Price for Its Bonds"; *American School Board Journal*, LXX, 73-74, 130.

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Indicates modern practices in financial reporting.

VINSON, THOMAS W. — "Intelligent Buying by School Board"; *American School Board Journal*, LXVI, 49-50, 135.

Lays down eight sound guiding principles in buying furniture and equipment.

CHAPTER VI

TAKING CARE OF EMPLOYMENT PROBLEMS

Importance of employment management. — Employment management is recognized as one of the big problems of industry. Two factories may be comparatively equal in capital, buildings, equipment, and location, yet one may be far more productive than the other. When search is made for the reason of this superiority, it is found that one considers the human factor and the other does not. One is careful about selecting its employees. It pays good salaries, and its employees are insured permanent tenure, with old age pensions, and accident insurance. Their health is closely guarded, and their social welfare is promoted. The working day is of reasonable length, the supervision is helpful and sympathetic. It is a demonstrated fact that the most successful business enterprises are those that conserve best the welfare of their employees.

If human engineering is vital in industry it is doubly so in education. Most of the industrial workers deal with things. They operate

machines, they apply labor and skill in bringing about changes in wood, iron, and textiles. School employees deal with human beings. They are engaged in bringing about desirable changes, not in unfeeling materials, but in children. It is obvious then that morale is a more important consideration among those who work with humanity than it is among those who work with machines. The spirit with which schools are managed is reflected both in the teachers and in the pupils.

Moreover, the skill to run machines is in most instances quickly acquired. It requires no long period of instruction and training. It demands no lengthy apprenticeship. It does not consume time out of working hours. Most of the adjustment courses serving to introduce raw beginners to their jobs do not last more than two weeks. Industrial workers are earning while they are learning. Uneducated and untrained people enter upon productive employment in industry every day.

Conditions are widely different in teaching. Teachers must be specialists. They must take long courses of specialized training. If they are adequately trained, they must have invested

anywhere from three thousand dollars up in time and money. In city schools, they are generally placed on probation when beginning service — a form of apprenticeship — before they are given permanent appointments. They cannot go about from one position to another as workers in coal mines and steel mills can. Character being one of the main requirements for teaching, anything that reflects upon the teacher's reputation does her an irreparable injury. Dangers from contagious disease and from nervous troubles are ever present. In other words, the hazards of teaching are greater than the hazards of industry.

The personnel problem in teaching is important in view of the number concerned. An iron works, a cotton mill, or a department store that employs five hundred to a thousand workers has reached the stage where it is considered big business. Yet there are many city schools with more than five hundred employees — teachers, janitors, secretaries, clerks, and supervisors. Some counties have five hundred or more rural teachers. The biggest automobile business in the world has about sixty thousand employees. There is no school system that has

so many, but the school district with thirty thousand employees is an actual fact. There are at least one thousand school districts in the country that approach the size of the biggest industrial units. Besides there are the thousands of children whose interests are at stake.

When a comparison between employment conditions in industry and the schools is made, a startling contrast is discovered. Industries have a specialized department of employment management and employment welfare. The schools have none. Henry Ford has thirty trouble specialists to look after the workmen in one division of his plant. The largest school systems seem to be unaware that there is a welfare problem among their employees. Every self-respecting industrial unit has its welfare department; the school that delegates the services of a nurse to look after the health of its teachers is a splendid exception. What is the reason for this neglect? Have school authorities been indifferent, negligent, uninformed? One might dismiss the implied criticism with the consoling thought that school employees do not stand in need of welfare service. Such an idea simply publishes a woeful lack of knowledge of facts.

Responsibility of the board. — The school board is directly and almost wholly responsible for the welfare of its employees. It fixes the conditions of their service: their salaries, tenure, discipline, hours and load, and place of work. In performing these duties, the board determines nothing less than the happiness of the children, their rate of learning, their character, and doubtless the safety and prosperity of the country. In teaching, so much is dependent upon individual character and initiative, that the only safeguard is for the board to use sound judgment in its employment policy.

When the board has once made a decision on personnel, it is, in a certain sense, irrevocable. If a teacher is inefficient it may be a long time before it is discovered. Some damage has already been done. In a machine shop, a poor workman probably does nothing worse than spoil a few dollars' worth of materials. The loss is not a serious one. But the harm done by an inefficient, discontented, wrong-intentioned teacher is almost irreparable. Compensation can be made for damage to things: damage to children and to the state cannot be repaired.

Division of duties. — The employment duties of the school board are of four main types: (1) selection, (2) compensation, (3) tenure, and (4) welfare. The phases of these problems are so varied and complex that it will not be possible to more than touch upon them here. For more extended discussion, such books as Almack and Lang, *Problems of the Teaching Profession*, and Lewis, *Personnel Problems of the Teaching Staff*, should be consulted. (See list of references at end of chapter.) At this time an endeavor will be made to bring out some of the leading principles, through emphasizing two problems: (1) the selection of the superintendent, and (2) the compensation of teachers, the other problems being treated only incidentally.

Selecting the superintendent. — One of the first duties a new board is often called upon to perform is the selection of a chief executive or superintendent. The office is vital to the well-being of the schools, in every sense comparable in importance to that of the general manager of a great industrial plant. The position is likely to be sought after. Special interests will perhaps have particular concern in what is done. Pressure may be brought upon the direc-

tors to give preference to this or that candidate. It will be profitable if the board has already determined just what its procedure is going to be, especially in respect to the following:

1. The qualifications of the candidates
2. The conditions of employment such as salary and tenure
3. The method of finding a desirable candidate
4. The investigation of the qualifications of candidates
5. The election of the chosen candidate

Requirements. — A very long list of qualifications for the superintendency might be made up. In fact, there is almost no human trait that is unimportant. It is impossible to consider all, however. Essentially the board wants to find a person who will coöperate in making the schools efficient and keeping them that way. It wants some one who will work with a minimum of friction, whose word is as good as any bond, and whose sole interest is in his job. As the irreducible minimum, the following points should be investigated of every candidate considered:

1. Training
2. Experience
3. Character
4. Special achievements
5. General success
6. Personal traits and qualities

Training. — Hard and fast rules concerning training cannot be set down. There will be many candidates superior to their training; some inferior to it. If possible the rule should be to require candidates to meet at least the minimum standards fixed for any other position. If high school teachers must have an A.B. degree from an approved institution, there is nothing unreasonable in expecting superintendents to have as much training. If teachers must have five years training above high school, as in the secondary schools of California, nothing less should be accepted from superintendents. Authorities are inclined to advise this requirement, which is the equivalent of a Master's degree. Major courses in education, with minors in economics and political science, make an excellent combination.

Experience. — A broad experience is also a requisite. Some of it should have been in classroom teaching and in the principalship. The small town and city superintendency is good all-around experience for a superintendency in a large city. Five to ten years is a good period of apprenticeship; in the large city schools, fifteen to twenty years. Thus one would scarcely enter

upon the superintendency until he was thirty years old, and in the larger schools not until he was thirty-five or forty. It is an advantage to have had other than school experience, but the school board could not make this a prerequisite to appointment, nor could they expect it to be long.

Character. — Only a person of unblemished character should be considered. He must be honest in respect to business relations, his word must be absolutely reliable, and he must not be swerved from the path of duty by his own personal considerations. By all means the board should get some one who lives up to the ethics of the teaching profession.

Special achievements. — One of the best tests of a candidate is the things of special note which he has done. Has he put into effect new ideas on buildings, the improvement of teachers, the raising of funds, the enrichment of the curriculum, supervision, method of instruction, salary schedules, office management, measurement of results, or has he been content to run the schools along the old formal routine lines? New ideas are always worth acknowledging, and the man who has succeeded in doing old

things in a better way, is more hopeful than the one who is content just to keep the wheels turning.

General success. — Chances are more favorable for a man who comes into the schools with a record of success behind him. This is but repeating the old adage "Nothing succeeds like success." Of course, many a man fails when it is not his fault, and if he is otherwise actually superior, may be preferred to the one who has had easy going and, on the surface, has succeeded. In the main, though, a past record for general success is predictive of such a future record. A superintendent, too, who keeps his school well balanced is really better than the one who makes a spectacular showing with one or two particulars. A school executive must necessarily be an all-around individual.

Personal qualities. — Many qualities might be named under this heading, such as courtesy, tact, health, sincerity, sense of humor, and unselfishness. At the top of the list comes the ability to do teamwork. It is also a wise plan to get a superintendent that members of the board like personally. Associations in school work are close, and no one wants to work with

a disagreeable person. Finally, he must be loyal to the board and to the school, and must

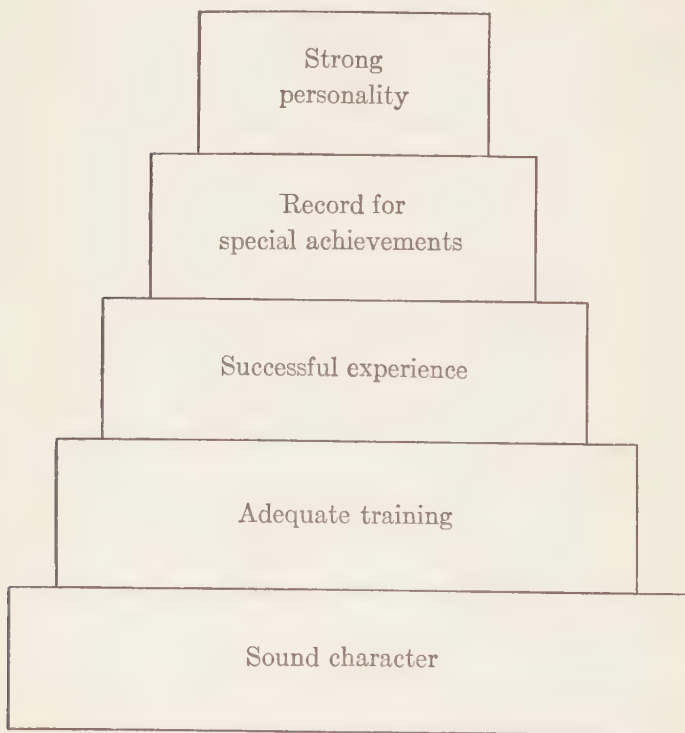


CHART VI. — Equipment of the superintendent

have the courage and the persistence to stay at a task until it is successfully completed.

Some of these requirements have been put in a semi-humorous fashion by a writer in the

American School Board Journal.¹ He says the school superintendent must be

1. A human engineer — to be able to get along with directors, teachers, parents, and pupils.

2. A publicist and a journalist — to know what to give the reporters.

3. An expert in finance — to be able to talk and act intelligently on fiscal matters: taxes, bonds, and the distribution of school funds.

4. A statistician and an analyst — to be able to put his ideas in salable form in charts and graphs.

5. An expert accountant — to follow up the business management in his statistical gyrations, and properly check up the mechanism of the business office.

6. A charming and convincing speaker — to make a good impression and to convince others of the worth of education.

7. A capitalist — so that he can live on his income when the public is through with him.

8. A philosopher — so that he can take his failure with equanimity when it finally comes.

Finding a superintendent. — A board may follow several methods in finding a superintendent. One of these may be called the scouting method. The board sends one of its members to visit other schools with the idea of persuading one of the most promising superintendents to

¹ Stone, H. E. "Facts for Prospective Executives"; *American School Board Journal*, LXVI, 36-37.

transfer his services. This is entirely proper, if rightly managed.

The scout ought first to call upon the chairman of the board and tell him frankly what his, the visitor's, business is. No reasonable school board can object to its employees receiving deserved promotion. In the interview with the chairman, the scout should gather as much information respecting the candidate's fitness as he can, and should learn where the other chief sources of information are to be found. The whole matter ought to be handled very frankly. Above all things, the boards should not commence to bid against each other. The thing to do is to make as attractive an offer as possible, and, if the local board meets the terms, withdraw, or at least not subject the candidate to undue pressure for an acceptance.

Another way is to go to intermediate agencies such as university appointment bureaus and commercial agencies. This plan has both advantages and disadvantages. The advantages are that action may usually be obtained quickly. Credentials of candidates will have already been collected and may be examined in a short time. The head of the agency will offer his own

judgment as to the merits of the candidates. No time is lost in negotiating with a man who would not accept if elected.

There are some disadvantages. The best men do not commonly register with appointment agencies. The choice in colleges is rather narrow. Commercial agencies get a percentage of the first year's salary as commission and are often overanxious to place one of their candidates. On this account, they may not investigate so fully nor recommend with as much discretion as they might. This is just a caution to take indorsements less seriously when made by someone who has a financial interest in the person indorsed.

The best way is to apply to authorities in education. One source of suggestions is county and city superintendents. They generally know some promising candidates who are open to offers. A second way is to inquire of education departments in the normal schools, colleges, and universities. In doing this, the local situation should be briefly described and suggestions as to available candidates invited. The professional group may be depended upon to give an honest and unbiased estimate of the qualifications of applicants with whom they are acquainted.

The local candidate. — The question of the local candidate always presents itself. There may be several aspirants to the vacancy — an assistant superintendent, a supervisor, a principal. It is the opinion of the writer that these should not be passed by without consideration.

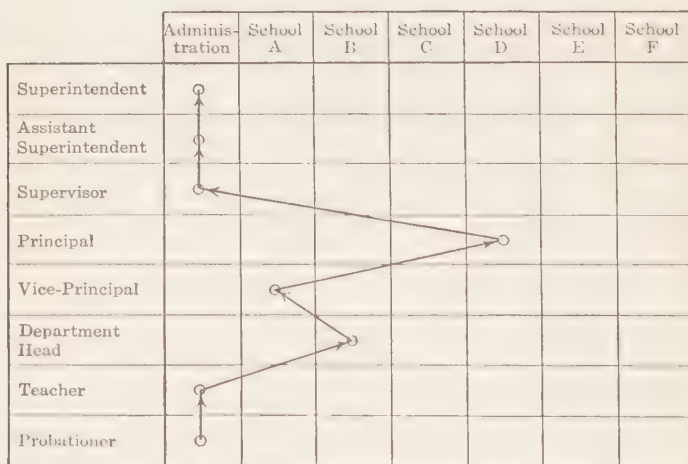


CHART VII. — Promotion chart — public school system

It seems to be an ill-advised policy to refuse to make promotions from the local staff. In fact, the board ought always to survey the local field before reaching a final decision and give any qualified individual fair consideration. In addition, the board would do well to have an under-

study for every executive in the system. Then when a vacancy occurs, some one will be trained and ready for the position. This practice pays in industry; it ought to work in education.

There are some situations in which it is better to bring in an outsider. One of these is when school morale is low, the methods formal, and practices out of date. A successful superintendent from another school comes in with more prestige and often starts with more united support than even a most progressive local candidate. This is an illustration of the recognized principle that "A prophet is not without honor save in his own country." A second situation that demands new blood is when the system is blocked by petty jealousies and factional troubles. A third exists when there are complicated problems to be solved which no one in the local organization is equal to. Thus it seems that while the local candidate should not be favored if he is inferior, all things being equal he is entitled to first consideration.

Getting facts about the candidates. — After having located three or four candidates for consideration, the next step is to obtain complete and accurate information concerning them.

There are three chief sources to which the board can go:

1. The candidates themselves
2. Directors and citizens in the school districts where the candidates are in service
3. Authorities in education outside of the districts

Getting facts from the candidates. — Negotiations may begin by inviting the candidates, one at a time, to call upon the board. If the distance is great this cannot be fairly done unless the board is willing to take care of the traveling expenses. The reason why one candidate at a time should appear is obvious. A short time ago a western city was looking for a new superintendent. The clerk wrote to many places for applicants. All that responded were asked to call on the board, and, without notice to the candidates, the same date was set for reception of all.

To the surprise of the candidates, a total of about forty assembled in the waiting room. Each candidate was invited into the inner sanctum, where the board was in session, for a fifteen minute interview. When the better men saw the situation they withdrew, and the appointment finally went to a relatively inexperi-

enced and incompetent applicant. This illustration is cited as a method to be avoided.

A better way is to invite only a few to call. When an appointment with a candidate has been made, one or two board members should be delegated to meet him, show him over the schools, and explain local conditions to him. He should be told something of the problems of the schools, their needs, and their possibilities. He should be supplied with reports showing the financial situation, the plan of organization, the projected expansions, and given any other information that will help him to understand the school. Inasmuch as the board is not trying to sell the system to the visitor, he should be given the facts, bad and good. It is not good psychology to overemphasize the defects, but on the other hand, it is not a good idea to show only the good things.

The candidate should also meet all the directors. If time permits, a short and informal conference with the board is advisable. The candidate may be invited to tell of his training, experience, achievements, and may give his views on school policy. The board should not form a judgment favorable or unfavorable at this

stage. A really capable man may be a little modest about telling what he can and cannot do. He will also be reluctant to tell what he will do until he is in possession of all the facts. The board should, therefore, not be blinded by the candidate's refusal to commit himself, nor should they attempt "to line him up" on any proposition. Before he leaves, it is well to ask him to make a formal written statement of his qualifications for the files.

Getting facts from others. — Coincident with the interview, inquiries should be addressed to others. The first should go to the school board in the candidate's own district. It may be well to get an expression from the whole board first; later an expression from individual members. If direct questions are asked, the answers will be more useful than if the reference is requested to "tell what he knows about Mr. ———." Letters of inquiry should also be sent to three or four reliable citizens of good judgment in school matters.

Leaders in educational work should be appealed to for information. As indicated previously, these may be county, city, and state superintendents; and members of the staff of

the education department of higher institutions. The estimates given by these individuals are in the main prompt, complete, and dependable. Here again it is better to ask definite questions than to leave the character of the information to the option of the reference.

Scouting for information. — After a fair sample of data has been brought together by means of the interview and the written reference, a member of the board, or more than one if the distance is not too great, should visit the candidate's district. The candidate should be informed in advance, and the directors should call upon him first. Accompanied by the superintendent, they should spend a few hours looking over the schools. Next, they should call upon board members, civic leaders, and other people of prominence who are interested in education.

Some suggest that it is worth while to interview enemies of the superintendent, if it happens that he has made any. If it happens that the person interviewed is a man of character, he is generally willing to concede the strong points of his opponent. If he is not, no matter what he says, his testimony should not be counted.

If differences arose merely about a matter of policy, they may be passed over lightly. If a moral principle is involved, the right and wrong of the case should be investigated. If the evidence shows lack of tact, courtesy, judgment, knowledge, willingness to coöperate, etc., on part of the candidate, the board may well hesitate to recommend his election. However, information from one's opponents is almost always prejudiced and should not be weighed as heavily as estimates from an impartial source.

If the interviewer is a sympathetic listener, he may find that the superintendent's enemy simply reveals his own defects of character. To give an example, a school board once sent one of their number scouting for data on a candidate. The director met with an enemy of the applicant. By keeping his ears open, the visitor learned that the enmity grew out of a refusal of the superintendent to appoint a near relative of this person to a position in the schools. He learned that the superintendent had gained the enmity of a big contractor because he refused to let this man have a glimpse at the bids on a building before his own bid had gone in. In this way, by arriving at the real reasons for

objections to the candidate, he found they were his best indorsements. As was said of President Cleveland, many a superintendent should be admired for the enemies he has made.

Evaluating data. — When the investigation has been completed, there remains the task of evaluating the data. All of it should be brought together and considered by the board. The candidate's own statements should be examined; the letters of reference should be read; the scouts should report. By the time this stage is reached, the number of candidates will be greatly reduced. A test vote may now be taken to find out which candidates stand highest. When this has been shown, and those out of the running dropped, a final vote is in order. The directors should vote independently. The motives of a director who gets out and makes a strong campaign for a particular candidate are not above suspicion. Most of the bad blood which develops in the process of electing a superintendent is due to somebody's having an ax to grind.

As soon as the election is over and the fortunate candidate has accepted, the confidential

letters from board members and others should be destroyed or returned to the writers. No exception to this rule should be made in the case of the successful applicant. None of the references and confidential reports should be kept on file. In one small city, the newly elected superintendent found the confidential papers of fifty applicants — his own among them. Cases have been known of school boards being so thoughtless as to mail or give confidential references directly to the applicant. If a thing like this becomes known, boards would find it difficult to get honest and frank expressions of opinion on candidates — and would have little right to them.

Compensating the superintendent. — No scientific basis has been developed for calculating what salary the superintendent should receive. The board may make a tentative offer. If the offer is unsatisfactory, negotiations may be kept open until an agreement is reached or the impossibility of an agreement revealed. A good method would be to fix the beginning salary at the average for districts of the class, and provide for annual increases for five years until a salary equal to that paid by the best twenty-

five per cent is reached, with such later increases as are deemed just.

Data on salaries are ordinarily available from the United States Bureau of Education and the National Education Association. As changes are constantly taking place, school boards should write for the latest facts when engaged in revising their own schedules. Just as an illustration of the kind of facts which may be obtained, the figures below are taken from Bulletin No. 30, 1921, United States Bureau of Education:

SALARIES OF ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICERS
(Cities of 50,000 to 100,000 population)

OFFICERS	MINIMUM	LOWER QUARTILE	MEDIAN	UPPER QUARTILE	MAXIMUM
Superintendent . . .	\$3450	\$5000	\$6000	\$6250	\$10,000
Assistant superintendent	2000	2670	3450	4000	5,500
Secretary of board . .	350	2100	3000	3600	5,000
Business manager . .	2000	2200	3000	3800	4,200
Buildings superintendent	1200	2350	2780	3000	4,200
Attendance officer . .	1000	1400	1700	2000	2,900
Medical inspector . .	300	1000	1800	2000	4,392
Supervisors (art) . . .	1500	2000	2300	2600	3,600

The superintendent's tenure. — Tenure is another important condition of employment. Some districts hire a superintendent for a year with the understanding that his contract will be extended for from three to five years if the pro-

bationary period is satisfactory. In some ways, this seems to be an unnecessary caution. The best type of man will not care to stay where he is not doing good work. The board will probably be more careful in their selection if the contract is for an indefinite period. Efficiency demands that the same superintendent be retained for several years. It takes a long time to develop policies and put them into effect. Three to five years is a short enough period to judge the ability of a school executive. In a few states tenure is governed by general law, and the first concern of the board should be to know what the law is. In California, for example, the superintendent is first appointed for a year, and thereafter for four-year periods.

Selecting subordinates. — If the departmental system of executive organization prevails, the respective heads should be selected much after the fashion described for the superintendent. With the selection of subordinates, however, the duty of the board is quite different. It can readily be seen that if so much time should be given to investigating the record of a single individual, the directors cannot afford to give enough time to select teachers, supervisors,

principals, janitors, and clerks. This is a duty that should be delegated to the executive department or departments. The division of duties is as follows:

1. The school board fixes the general employment policies. It prescribes the qualifications, salaries, tenure, and other conditions.

2. The superintendent searches out persons who meet the general requirements and collects facts on their special abilities.

3. He presents a list of those who in his judgment are most capable, and nominates them for the positions. He may, if it is the wish of the board, designate a first choice and a second choice for each vacancy. He must be prepared to give the reasons for his selections, offering facts in support.

4. The board then proceeds to elect from the list recommended by the superintendent. Should any one so recommended not meet the board's approval, he is asked to nominate some one else.

The advantages of this method are plain to those who have had experience. It makes it possible for the superintendent to go out and find the best janitors and teachers to be had. He is not restricted to choosing from a few; he can select from the many. He can investigate carefully. The method goes a long way toward securing unity, without which there can be no successful school. The board and the super-

intendent are freed from charges of favoritism, of playing politics, and of being influenced by local factions. The board should understand the basis of selection, and the records of all applicants should be open to the board's examination.

The directors can do much to clear away grounds for suspicions of wrong practice by adopting rigorous policies. These should be a matter of record and of publicity. While all material matters of selection of employees should be covered, a few, of which the following are examples, should be particularly stressed:

1. No near relative of a director or the superintendent should be elected to a position in the schools.
2. No director should use his influence to get the superintendent to nominate any individual.
3. The record of all nominees should be on file and accessible to the board before election.
4. No nomination should be approved where the candidate does not measure up to the minimum standards outlined by the board.
5. No one should be permitted to make nominations except the one in whom the board has vested the authority by regulation.¹

¹ It is the general practice for the superintendent to nominate, and of the board to elect. F. W. Ballou, *The Appointment of Teachers in Cities*, gives the facts on seventy cities as below:

1. The board appoints on the recommendations of others in	53 cities
2. The board approves appointments made by others in	14 cities
3. The board exclusive of others appoints in	1 city
4. The board does not participate in	2 cities

TOTAL

70 cities

Compensation of teachers. — Salaries are a most important factor in employment management.¹ In the previous chapter it was noticed that from sixty to seventy-five per cent of the budget is for salaries. They are the main determinants of school costs and doubtless hold first place in the minds of employees. In view of their significance, it is surprising that there is so little definite knowledge on the question. In order to illustrate some of the basic principles the discussion will take up teachers' salaries. The conclusions are generally applicable to all employees.

The first conclusion is that there should be a salary schedule. It is a basis for scientific budget making. It prevents religious, social, and political pull and favoritism gaining an advantage for certain teachers. It removes the board and the superintendent from unpleasant political pressure. It is one of the first steps toward the accurate prediction of costs of education. Finally, it is the one means that assures justice to all.

¹ The principal way to increase salaries is to increase the budget. There are several educators who believe, if this cannot be done, that it is better to get along with fewer teachers and pay them well than to divide an insufficient budget among many. There are two ways to get along with fewer teachers: (1) by decreasing the number of subjects taught, or (2) by increasing the teacher's load. These methods may be combined effectively.

What salaries should be paid? — The main question is “Upon what bases should salary schedules be made?” Every one will agree upon certain points: teachers should be paid enough to enable them to live in decency and comfort. They should be guaranteed a competency for old age. The better teachers ought to be paid more. At least a small allowance should be made for loyal and faithful service; there should be some material inducement for teachers to keep up to date.

While admitting that there are several unsettled points, it is believed that the factors enumerated can be recognized in salary schedules. As an illustration, the following five basic salary principles are stated and illustrated in calculating the salary of an elementary teacher of two years' normal school training, five years' experience, and superior ability. We should have the following:

1. *The subsistence principle.* — This gives the bare minimum — enough for board and room, clothing, medical and dental attention, recreation, and pension. It is computed by finding the cost of room and board for twelve months and multiplying by two. Estimated at \$50 a month for board and room, gives \$100 a month total or for a year \$1200

2. *The training principle.* — Training represents money and time invested. The teacher is entitled to returns on her investment the same as the merchant, farmer, and banker. To estimate, count interest at a savings rate (say 4%) on the actual cost of attending school plus an allowance for time on the level of common labor. Assuming a cost of \$450 a year for schooling and the same for time gives for two years \$1800. Interest amounts to.

72

3. *The improvement principle.* — This covers necessary expenses attendant upon presence at professional meetings, visiting other schools, and taking summer school courses at colleges and universities. Since the district profits by the outlay it seems only fair that it should stand the costs, the teacher giving her time. Setting a six weeks term every other year as a minimum allowance per year gives

50

4. *The experience principle.* — The reasons for paying for experience are two: (1) the teaching is better because of it, and (2) it makes for loyalty, contentment, and permanence of tenure. The cost of initiating a new teacher into the schools is probably not less than \$100 a year. There is a distinct profit in allowing, say, \$25 per year. This gives

125

5. *The ability principle.* — This permits the board to recognize and compensate superior ability. It is the difference between what ought to be paid as a minimum to all teachers and what ought to be paid for the best teachers. There is no

definite basis for computing the amount. In general, it is determined by what the board can afford after meeting necessities. In this case, for illustration allow 100

The total salary ¹ computed for the teacher of two years training and five years experience is \$1547

The teacher's tenure. — There is great need of a more stable tenure among teachers. As the facts now stand, most teachers stay in one school system only three or four years; in many small schools the average tenure is only a little over a year. This results in great loss to the schools and to the teachers. Conditions are so bad that reputable educators urge the abandonment of the old yearly contract plan, and the election of teachers for an indefinite period without the formality of the usual application. Not all the causes of brief and uncertain tenure can be removed within a few years, nor by ordinary board legislation, but the adoption of such suggestions as the following will improve conditions:

1. Beginning teachers elected on probation for a two or three year period.
2. After finishing the probationary period, election for an indefinite time.

¹ No validity is claimed for the figures given. They are used only to illustrate the principles.

3. Small advances in salary with each year of service, provided the teacher meets reasonable improvement requirements, such as attendance at summer school.

4. Due notice given to any teacher whose dismissal is contemplated, the reasons being stated, and an opportunity given to remedy the deficiencies with which she is charged.

5. Special efforts to make teaching attractive through salaries, sick leave, pensions, and other welfare benefits.

Employment welfare. — Some one in the executive department of the schools should give especial attention to the welfare of employees. Every normal school, college, university, and many high schools have officers to supervise the welfare of the students. Almost all industries of any consequence have welfare departments. It is a singular fact that school boards have done almost nothing of this kind for their employees. The problems which rightly come under this subject are many: recreation, health, load, and living conditions. It is impossible to discuss any of these in detail here, and the summaries which follow merely hint at the problems.

1. *Health.* — All employees should be in good health when appointed. They should work under healthful conditions: a good building, restrooms and other comfort conveniences, a reasonable daily load, and helpful super-

vision. They should consult the medical staff of the school without charge. A complete and accurate record of sick leave absences should be kept. It is equally a mistake to grant ten to fifteen days sick leave annually with full pay and to grant no sick leave. In the first case, employees will take the leave whether they need it or not; in the second case employees will remain at work who ought to be home in bed. Leave with half pay, number of days unspecified, is about right, with special rulings for special cases. The health of teachers, in particular, should be supervised by a school nurse.

2. *Pensions.* — Whenever possible, pensions should be provided. Small cities and rural schools can do nothing without state action. Large cities can organize pension systems of their own, or contract with private companies. Assurance should be obtained that the system adopted is sound financially. The best results follow when the board and the teachers pay the premiums on a fifty-fifty basis. Legislation on this subject is summarized in Volume IV, Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, and this publication should be consulted by the board.

3. *Living conditions.* — The attention of the board should be directed toward providing proper living conditions for employees. Many districts are constructing dwellings for the use of the teachers, sufficient rental being paid to take care of interest, depreciation, and bonds. In some of the larger cities, the school board is encouraging teachers to form living clubs. By this means, costs of living are reduced,¹ and the teachers enjoy greater privacy, freedom, and comfort.

¹Salaries should always be judged relative to their purchasing power. It took \$173 in 1923 to buy what could be bought for \$100 in 1913. The table

PURCHASING POWER OF ELEMENTARY TEACHERS' SALARIES IN CITY "X"¹

YEAR	AVERAGE SALARY CITY "X"	INDEX OF COST OF LIVING	PURCHASING POWER, AVER- AGE SALARY	INDEX OF PUR- CHASING POWER, AVERAGE SALARY
1913	\$1143	100	\$1143	100.0
1914	1160	103	1126	98.5
1915	1167	105	1111	97.2
1916	1204	118	1020	89.2
1917	1257	142	885	77.4
1918	1327	174	763	66.7
1919	1483	199	745	65.2
1920	1703	200	852	72.5
1921	1809	174	1040	91.0
1922	1848	170	1087	95.1
1923	1860	173	1075	94.0

Summary. — Personnel management is one of the major problems of the school board. It is also a neglected problem. While much progress has been made in industry, the school has done practically nothing in this line. There are four divisions of the problem: (1) selection, (2) compensation, (3) tenure, and (4) welfare. The superintendent should be selected directly by the board. His selection comprises fixing requirements, finding candidates, investigating qualifications, and making final choice. Other employees should be appointed only upon the recommendation of the superintendent. Salaries

above shows that teachers in city "X" were actually paid a smaller salary in 1923 than in 1913. School boards should apply the indexes to salaries paid in their respective districts.

¹ *Research Bulletin*, National Education Association, Vol. II, Nos. 1 and 2 (January and March, 1924), p. 20.

should be based upon sound economic principles, and tenure should be assured during efficient service. The welfare of employees should be safeguarded. In a large district, a welfare department is desirable.

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CHAPTER VII

CONFORMING TO ETHICAL PRINCIPLES

What ethics means. — Most of the general duties of the board are fixed by state laws. Many specific duties are outlined in local rules and regulations. Yet there are also many obligations not written into law at all; there are many things which boards should not do which are unmentioned in rules and regulations. They are supposed to do these things which ought to be done and refrain from doing the things which ought not to be done as a matter of custom. They are discredited and distrusted if they do not.

The customary ways of doing things which lie outside the province of law and rules constitute the field of ethics. The term itself is derived from a Greek word meaning custom and usage. In our time, the idea has been expanded to signify the ideal as well as the customary. It is notable, however, that a code of ethics will not be sanctioned unless it repeats what almost all people think and feel and believe. Ethics then deals with conduct that meets social ap-

proval. What is approved is ethical; what is disapproved is unethical.

The principal way to tell whether conduct is ethical or not is to inquire into its results. If its purpose is to advance the welfare of the larger group and it succeeds in doing so, it is ethical. If its purpose is to promote individual good, and it accomplishes this without injury to society, it is ethical. If only self-interests have been consulted, it is unethical. The railroad president who said "The public be damned" when told he was not running his road in the interests of society was as unethical as he was unwise. It is a foundation principle that "Pure self-regard can furnish no criterion of conduct."

No one can get along without social approval. Action is the very essence of life, and every act is either ethical or unethical. If his conduct is not approved as a general thing, his group will shut him off from social benefits. Social disapproval, outlawry, and punishment follow each other as unethical behavior continues. A person who violates ethical canons now and then is as frequently being called upon to explain his conduct. If he cannot do this satisfactorily, his associates are likely to shun him. Influence,

success, satisfaction, and happiness are all dependent upon acting in ways that are understandable to one's fellows, and in ways that meet their approval.

The need of ethics. — It may be argued that school directors do not stand in need of training in ethics. This is not the case, however. The school board has scores of particular kinds of relations of which they have known little or nothing before beginning their public service. Where the interests of so many people meet, as they do in school work, it is necessary to chart the field, so that each one will know where his rights end and his duties begin. There are some people, too, and unfortunately they may be elected to the school board, who are out to get what they can for themselves. There are others who mean well but who are ignorant of the special field of school ethics. At all events, whether ignorance, indifference, or bad intent be the cause, there is occasional unethical conduct among directors. Witness the statements of Professor J. B. Edmondson:

1. In a certain city, a school board member makes it a point to sell life insurance to the teachers. It is said to be a good investment to take out a policy.

2. A city superintendent on the request of a board member whose son had failed in high school issued recommendation to college in spite of the failure.

3. A school board called a special meeting and elected teachers, not inviting the superintendent to be present.

4. A rival of a superintendent was appointed to a high school principalship in the same city in order to embarrass the superintendent and force him to resign.

5. Certain teachers were ordered to resign without previous warning, and without cause — except that their positions were wanted for friends of the board.

6. Teachers were prevented from obtaining better positions in other schools in order to retain them in the local schools at the old salaries.

7. Weak teachers were given strong recommendations to other schools in order to get them out of the local schools.¹

Other illustrations may be discovered without great difficulty. For example, a director, in the grocery business, sold goods to a woman who boarded several teachers. He called at the landlady's house one day and advised her to charge the teachers good round sums for board, as they were getting good salaries and could pay it. In another case, the board concealed the fact that it had incurred heavy legal expenses in straightening out a tangle for which it was

¹ Edmondson, J. B. — "Suggestions for a Code of Professional Ethics for Superintendents and School Board Members"; *American School Board Journal*, LXIV, 43-44.

responsible. Another board underestimated the amount of money necessary to run the elementary schools. There was a surplus in the high school budget. The law forbade the transfer of money from one fund to another without a public hearing. Nevertheless, the board juggled the funds to avoid the public acknowledgment of an error of judgment.

Nature of board relationships. — In many ways, school board membership is a profession. A profession seeks to use all the resources at its command for the benefit of society. It differs from a trade, in that the monetary consideration is secondary. The measure of success is the service performed, not the gains amassed. Efficient performance of the tasks involved requires that a director meet almost all the criteria of a profession. For example:

1. His acceptance of the office is an announcement that he is competent to give the service expected and that he may be trusted to do it.

2. His service is rendered to the best of his ability entirely independent of the social and economic status of the persons concerned. No favors are to be shown on account of wealth, social position, or political influence.

3. He shall coöperate with all others engaged in public welfare work.

4. He shall feel personally responsible for social welfare under all conditions.
5. He shall be loyal to the institution he represents.
6. He shall carry out his duties faithfully and to the best of his ability.
7. He shall endeavor to make himself more proficient in his duties.

Like every profession or trade, the board has its own peculiar problems. In the course of time, there is likely to develop a form or standard of practice in doing its work. It comes to have a fairly definite code of ethics enforced by a code of honor. It knows what is right and appropriate for the group to do, and the members conform because it pays in every way. The public respect the directors because they have defined their principles of conduct. It accepts the code as an evidence of good faith. To sum up the advantages of a code of ethics for school boards, consider the following:

1. It reveals the aims and ideals of the board to all who have an interest in its actions, and increases public confidence.
2. It increases the confidence of the members in each other.
3. It serves as a guide to new directors and acquaints them with the standards of the board in the quickest possible time.

4. It makes the task of getting support for the schools easier.

5. It relieves the board from embarrassing pressure from those who want to get special favors.

6. It makes it easier to coöperate with the superintendent, teachers, and other employees.

The growth of codes of ethics. — No school board needs to feel that it will make itself conspicuous if it adopts a code of ethics. All the professions have set the example. Social workers and public service employees have agreed upon ethical principles. A recent publication of 523 pages¹ lists over a hundred codes. The wide range of interests may be illustrated by the brief sample of codes below:

1. American Institute of Accountants
2. Automotive Equipment Association
3. American Face Brick Association
4. Chamber of Commerce of the United States
5. National Association of Retail Clothiers and Furnishers
6. National Association of Credit Men
7. International Association of Milk Dealers
8. American National Retail Jewelers' Association
9. Northwest Lumbermen's Association
10. National Metal Trades Association
12. National Association of Real Estate Boards

¹ Heermance, Edgar L. — *Codes of Ethics*; Free Press Printing Company, 1924.

Progress in this has been most marked in recent years. A short time ago a conference of all professions was held to consider how their codes might be improved. The Rotary Club has pledged itself to create a code of ethics for every trade, craft, and business. The time is at hand when an association that does not publicly acknowledge its ethical obligations and live up to them shuts itself out of the trades, the professions, and business, and certainly out of public service.

The public is not so innocent as to assume that the adoption of a code is itself an indication of a higher ethical standard than the generality of mankind possesses. Practice may fall far below the standards announced in the code. On the other hand, groups that have not formally announced a code may be as responsible and as honorable as any body of men that can be found. Notwithstanding, it is an advantage to an ethical group and to society to put its principles into organized form and proclaim its adherence publicly to those principles.

Codes illustrated. — In the following pages, several codes are quoted as illustrations of

present-day thinking. As conditions change and new ideals develop, it is to be expected that these codes will undergo revision. The first that has been selected is the Rotary Code. The members of Rotary are drawn from many vocations. They represent a cross section of life in many communities and states. Its code contains, therefore, those general principles of conduct which all should obey. A school board that did less than comply with Rotary ethics would not be of the standard which modern life demands. If the general public were to frame its creed, we could expect it to parallel many of the principles of Rotary.

THE ROTARY CODE OF ETHICS

My business standards shall have in them a note of sympathy for our common humanity. My business dealings, ambitions, and relations shall always cause me to take into consideration my highest duties as a member of society. In every position in business life, in every responsibility that comes before me, my chief thought shall be to fill that responsibility and discharge that duty so well that when I have ended each of them I shall have lifted the level of human ideals and achievements a little higher than I found them. In view of this, it is my duty as a Rotarian:

1. To consider my vocation worthy, and as affording me distinct opportunity to serve humanity.

2. To improve myself, increase my efficiency, and enlarge my service, and by so doing attest my faith in the fundamental principle of Rotary, that he profits most who serves best.

3. To realize that I am a business man and ambitious to succeed; but I am first an ethical man, and wish no success that is not founded on the highest justice and morality.

4. To hold that the exchange of my goods, my service, and my ideas for profit is legitimate and ethical, provided that all parties to the exchange are benefited thereby.

5. To use my best efforts to elevate the standards of the vocation in which I am engaged, and so to conduct my affairs that others in my vocation may find it wise, profitable, and conducive to happiness to follow my example.

6. To conduct my business in such a manner that I may give a perfect service equal to or even better than my competitor, and when in doubt to give added service beyond the strict measure of debt or obligation.

7. To understand that one of the greatest assets of a professional or a business man is his friends and that any advantage gained by reason of friendships is eminently ethical and proper.

8. To hold that true friends demand nothing of one another and that any abuse of the confidence of friendship for profit is foreign to the spirit of Rotary, and in violation of its Code of Ethics.

9. To consider no personal success legitimate or ethical which is secured by taking unfair advantage of certain opportunities in the social order that are absolutely denied others, nor will I take advantages of opportuni-

ties to achieve material success that others will not take because of the questionable morality thereof.

10. To be not more obligated to a brother Rotarian than I am to every other man in human society; because the genius of Rotary is not in its competition, but in its coöperation; for provincialism can never have a place in an institution like Rotary, and Rotarians assert that human rights are not confined to Rotary Clubs, but are as deep and as broad as the race itself; and for these purposes does Rotary exist to educate all men and all institutions.

11. Finally, believing in the universality of the Golden Rule — *All things whatsoever ye would that men should do unto you, do ye even so unto them* — we contend that Society best holds together when equal opportunity is afforded all men in the resources of this planet.

The public service code. — The position of school director is very closely approximated in public service employment. Both men and women are represented in membership. Some are trained specialists; some have had almost no training. There are many occasions where friction might develop; a large element of teamwork is absolutely required. Close relations with the public are required. Not only is it important in an economic sense that public service employees do their work efficiently, but it is even more important in a political sense, since for all ostensible purposes the public

service is the government. The people will have little more confidence in the government than they have in its agents. Because of this importance and because of the similarity between board service and government service, the Public Service Code of Ethics should prove very interesting to board members. It is given herewith:

THE PUBLIC SERVICE CODE OF ETHICS

1. The public service employee should at all times be courteous, especially in his dealings with citizens who come to him with complaints, or for information, assistance, and advice.

2. He should give the best that is in him to the work he is called upon to perform.

3. He should deal fairly with all citizens, and should not accord to some more favorable treatment than to others.

4. He should not limit his freedom of action by accepting gratuities or favors from private citizens who have business dealings with the government.

5. He should never be a party to any transaction which would require him, as a representative of a department of government, to pass upon the quality or price of goods or services which he, in some other capacity, is offering for sale to that department.

6. If a public servant is asked by his superior to do something which would jeopardize the vital interests of the public, he should first endeavor to dissuade his superior from pressing the request, and if this method

proves unsuccessful he should tender his resignation, stating publicly his reasons for doing so.

7. A public servant who is charged with the enforcement of law with which he is not in sympathy should either subordinate his personal views or resign from the service.

8. He should work in full coöperation with other public servants in furthering the ends of government and in promoting public welfare.

9. He should be true to his obligations as a custodian of public property, and regard its misuse or waste as serious an offense as the direct misuse or waste of money from the public treasury.

Code of the National School Supply Association. — One of the relationships of school boards which has not been free from criticism is with school supply and equipment houses. In fairness, it may be said that most of the criticisms are of the past rather than of the present. It is interesting to note how the relationships appear from the point of view of the supply houses and to see what practices must be guarded against. The principles which follow include the Code of Business Practice and not the Code of Ethics which precedes it:

CODE OF BUSINESS PRACTICE

NATIONAL SCHOOL SUPPLY ASSOCIATION

1. Do unto others as you would have them do unto you.

2. Do not make false or disparaging statements respecting a competitor's products, his business, and his credit.

3. Do not harass competitors by fake requests for estimates on bills of goods, for catalogues, etc.

4. Do not sell goods at or below cost as "leaders," coupled with statements misleading the public into the belief that they were sold at a profit by reason of the seller's superior facilities.

5. Do not use the samples or reputation of one manufacturer for the purpose of getting an order and fill it with similar goods made by another manufacturer.

6. Regardless of the reported action of competitors the facts should be ascertained before acting upon reports or inferences that would cast suspicion upon a fellow member.

7. Make no deductions, rebates, or discounts which would camouflage the contents or amount of a contract unless plainly stated on the face of the bid and invoice when shipment is made.

8. Any member of this Association convicted of violating school laws in the territory in which he operates is automatically suspended from membership in the Association.

9. Any member of the Association who influences the cancelling of a contract already taken in good faith by another member of the Association and who profits by the cancellation, shall be subject to an investigation on the part of the Appeals and Grievances Committee if the injured party so desires, and findings of the Appeals and Grievances Committee shall be final.

10. The members of this Association are responsible for the merchandising methods and for all acts and activities on the part of their salesmen in the field.

11. To discourage advertising of an unfair, misleading, or demoralizing character.

12. To aid every legitimate effort to elevate the standard of the school supply business in the eyes of buyers and sellers . . . thus to make good our slogan: "Service to the School Children of America."

Ethics of the teaching profession. — The duties of school directors also bring them into relationship with members of the teaching profession. They ought to know what ethical standards teachers are expected to meet. Such knowledge will help the directors and the teachers. It will enable the board to judge more fairly the professional conduct of the teachers it employs; it will aid the board in estimating the professional worth of those who apply for positions. It is enough to say that the unethical teacher should not be employed, and that unprofessional conduct constitutes good cause for dismissal. On the other side of the case, school boards sometimes make it hard for a teacher to be ethical.

The professional codes of teachers are not uniform. The state system of control, the independence of county and city systems, have caused teachers' associations to act on the subject somewhat independently of one another.

A national code has not yet been formulated. However, there are many state and local codes, all having common elements, and all being based upon common principles. The best example of a teachers' code is that of the state of Pennsylvania, adopted in 1920 and cited below:

PENNSYLVANIA STATE CODE OF ETHICS FOR TEACHERS

I. *Professional attitude*

The highest obligation of every member of the teaching profession is due those who are under his professional care.

II. *Compensation*

The teaching profession should demand for each of its members that compensation which will enable him to render the most efficient service. To attain maximum efficiency the compensation must be sufficient to enable him to live upon a scale befitting his place in society, to permit the necessary expenditures for professional improvement, and to make proper provision for those dependent upon him and for himself in his old age.

III. *Open-minded study of education*

Every member of the profession should be a progressive student of education. To this end he should be a thoughtful reader of educational literature, should attend and participate in educational meetings, should engage in such experimentation and collection of data as will test the value of educational theories and aid in the establishment of a scientific basis for educational

practice, and should be willing to give to his fellow members the benefits of his professional knowledge and experience.

IV. *Criticism of associates*

a) The motives for all criticisms should be helpfulness and improvement. Adverse criticisms, known or heard, should not be made or repeated except to the one criticized, or to his superior with the full expectation that opportunity for explanation will be afforded. On the other hand, when corrupt and dishonorable practices are known to exist they should be fearlessly reported to the proper authorities.

b) Adverse comment and insinuations in regard to the work of a predecessor or of the teacher of a previous grade are to be condemned.

V. *Appointments and promotions*

a) All appointments, promotions, or advancements in salary should be made exclusively on merit. To this end, it is proper for a candidate to make his qualifications known to the proper school authorities, either directly or through a teachers' agency.

b) A teacher should take no steps toward obtaining a specific position until he knows the position is vacant or about to become vacant.

c) No teacher should secure an offer elsewhere for the sole purpose of using it as a means to obtain an increase of salary in his present position.

d) Upon accepting appointment in a given district a teacher should notify all other districts to which letters of application have been sent.

e) Whenever a superintendent is seeking a teacher in another district, he should inform the superintendent or the proper officials of a district, but a superintendent's reluctance to part with a teacher should not deprive the teacher of an opportunity for deserved advancement.

VI. *Contract obligations*

A teacher should never violate a contract. Unless the consent of the employing body is obtained releasing the obligation, the contract should be fulfilled. On the other hand, when a teacher is offered a better position elsewhere, it is against the best interests of the school to stand in the way of the teacher's advancement by arbitrary insistence upon the terms of a needlessly rigid contract, when the place can be satisfactorily filled.

VII. *Democracy in the development of school plans*

The superintendent should be recognized as the professional leader of the school system. Each member of the system should be given opportunity to collaborate in the solution of professional problems; but when a policy is finally determined, it should be loyally supported by all.

VIII. *Relations between supervisory officers and teachers*

a) Coöperation, loyalty, and sincerity should characterize all relations between supervisory officers and teachers.

b) Each teacher is entitled from time to time to statements of his professional record, whether favorable or unfavorable, and may properly make

requests for such statements. Moreover, every teacher whose reëmployment is not intended should be given timely notice.

c) A supervisor of classroom work should observe the following ethical principles in relation to teachers whose work he examines professionally.

1. He should express an opinion upon the work observed following each professional visit.
2. He should recommend ways to improve every fault pointed out, and allow a reasonable time for improvement.
3. He should not criticize a teacher before other teachers or before pupils.
4. He should just as certainly and just as unfailingly point out the excellences as the faults of the work observed.
5. He should give ample opportunity for questions following observation of the teacher's work.

IX. *Relations to parents*

a) Teachers should maintain coöperative relations with parents, and should meet criticism with open-mindedness and courtesy.

b) Teachers should not discuss the physical, mental, moral, or financial limitations of their pupils in such a way as to embarrass the pupils or parents unnecessarily. Nevertheless, they should exercise the utmost candor, as well as tact, in their communications with parents on matters of real importance. Information concerning the home conditions of the pupils should be held in confidence by the teachers.

X. *Relations to publishers and supply houses*

No member of the profession should act as an agent, or receive a commission, or royalty, or anything else of value, for any books or supplies in the selection of which he exercises official decision.

XI. *Teachers' agencies*

The profession should unhesitatingly condemn teachers' agencies that encourage teachers to break their contracts, that work for the appointment or promotion of unqualified teachers, or that make recommendations for positions not positively known to be vacant.

XII. *Loyalty to school boards*

a) It is the duty of every member of the profession in a school system to recognize the legal authority of the board of directors, and to be loyal to its policies established in accordance therewith.

b) If, however, the attitude of the school board should clearly and persistently be such as to prevent the members of the profession employed by it from serving the best interests of the pupils, and if repeated efforts to remedy the situation have been without avail, then an appeal should be made to the Commission on Professional Ethics.

Ethics for school boards. — There seems no reason why school boards should not follow the examples which have been set forth, and adopt a code of their own. The difficulty of getting

agreement upon the principles is not insurmountable. They are already deeply rooted in custom. All that is necessary, therefore, is to put forth an organized statement of the rules and practices which grow out of the board's public relationships, and which govern their public acts. As an illustration, a code covering many of the most significant ethical rules for school boards is given below:

A CODE OF ETHICS FOR SCHOOL BOARDS

1. The leading purpose of a school board should be service to society, a result to be gained through fostering public education, and promoting moral character.

2. Mutual confidence, coöperation, loyalty, and sincerity should characterize all relations among the members of the board with teachers, supervisors, and the superintendent, and with the general public.

3. It is the duty of school directors to aid in every honorable way in establishing and maintaining the good name, honor, and dignity of the schools, the teachers, and of the supervisors and administrative officials. So long as the official relationship exists they should not openly criticize or publicly express an adverse opinion of any employee or official no matter what the cause. They should expect the same courtesy from teachers, officials, and employees.

4. School directors should make no appointment to any position in school except upon the merits of the applicants. No one should be dismissed without good and

sufficient cause, properly substantiated, nor should any one be kept in ignorance as to the cause. Except in cases of immorality or gross neglect of duty, employees who are not to be reelected should be given ample time to obtain a position elsewhere.

5. School directors should not keep the people of their districts in ignorance concerning the condition of the schools. This is not to be construed as advocating the giving of sensational stories to the press about the schools, the revealing of contemplated plans, nor matter which would reflect upon the good name or personal character of any one connected with the school system.

6. No school board member should obstruct the development of school plans and programs, nor should he interfere in any way with their efficient execution. If he cannot coöperate with his associates it is his duty to resign.

7. No school director should try to influence the vote or other action of the board members, or of any employee through threat, promise of reward, deception, exchange of vote, or by any other means than legitimate open discussion where the only appeals are to the merits of the proposition under consideration.

8. It is the duty of school directors to promote and protect the welfare of the employees of the schools, and to safeguard them against overwork, unhealthful surroundings, inadequate pay, or other conditions which reduce their efficiency.

9. No school board member shall seek by personal solicitation or otherwise to sell to employees of the school or to the school real estate, insurance, supplies, textbooks, buildings, building materials, professional service, or any other commodity or service whatsoever.

10. No school board member shall assume any determinative or administrative authority without the previous definite instruction of the board in legal meeting. Examples are: offering or promising positions, contracts, giving orders or instructions to employees, or making announcements of board policy or probable future action.

11. No school board member shall ask of the school authorities or employees any privileges or favors for his children or his employees which would not be granted under the same circumstances to other patrons of the school.

12. It is unethical for any school director to try to obtain a position in the schools under his direction for any near relative or member of his immediate family.

13. School boards shall not engage in competitive bidding with any other school board for the services of any person or employee.

14. It is the duty of school boards to provide agencies and means for the interchange of thought between themselves, their administrative and supervisory departments, their teachers, and other employees.

15. It is contrary to ethical principles for school directors to reveal confidential correspondence or conversation, or to betray any confidence concerning the school, the teachers, or to gossip about the school and its employees.

16. It is the duty of school boards to place whatever educational opportunities the community can afford within reach of all the citizens.

17. If the rights of the children are being denied and if the schools are being subordinated to local and partisan politics, to the control of cliques, or to exploitation for personal gain, it is the duty of directors to apprise the

public of the facts and seek through legitimate channels to remedy the evils.

18. Believing in the value and necessity of education, and in their obligation to the state to uphold the cause of public schools, directors should not hesitate to do what they can personally to advance education in the community, the state, and the nation.

Enforcing codes. — Several ways may be found to enforce codes. In the state of Oregon, the newspapermen's association decided to give their code of ethics full publicity "in order that the public may check us up if we fail to observe it." This is the best way to enforce a code; that is, through the medium of public opinion. It is not a good idea to fine a man because he has violated a principle of ethics. It is not a good idea to give ethics the force of statute law, and penalize in some way or another every one who infringes on the code. It appears to be more satisfactory to trust to the common sense and good intentions of the parties concerned, with a fair chance that when once a code is drafted and made known there will be few violations. Infractions of the Pennsylvania State Teachers' Code are reported to a special commission elected by the teachers, and the commission calls the guilty persons

to account. This plan seems to work fairly well.

In order that new directors may know the code and old directors not forget it, the rules should be printed. Every member should have a copy for his office or for his school board notebook. A copy should be framed and posted in a conspicuous place in the board room. These are good methods for enforcement. On this point, one writer says:

The written code has been found a most effective means of accomplishing this result. (Enforcement.) It makes the standard definite enough to serve as a basis for moral pressure. It educates sentiment within the profession or trade, particularly the young men who have entered or are about to enter. It puts the association in the proper light before the employing public, and enlists the aid of that public in enforcing the standard. In the words of Franklin D. Jones, which have found their way into many code preambles: "The ideals of men best project themselves into reality when crystallized into written documents. . . . In every line of human activity, a united written expression of that which is best for the common good becomes a strong force for progress. The mere expression clarifies the general sentiment."¹

Friction is the result of differences in ideals. Unless school boards conform to ethical prin-

¹ Heermance, Edgar L. — *Codes of Ethics*, pp. 1-2; Free Press Printing Company.

ciples and insist upon their employees doing the same, they can never expect to maintain a harmonious and smoothly working school. In a good school high standards of conduct animate all from the smallest primary child to the city superintendent. A good many faults of which the younger generation is accused are nothing but reflections of what is going on about them. Character building cannot go on successfully in the schools when trickery, dishonesty, profiteering, and all the bad practices of the spoils system go on in the administrative departments. The fact is the school board sets the pattern for the whole system, which is not likely to be much better than those who guide it.

The point of this whole discussion can be no better stated than in the words of Mr. Tawney:

The idea that there is some mysterious difference between building schools and teaching in them when built, between providing food and providing health, which makes it at once inevitable and laudable that the former should be carried on with a single eye to pecuniary gain, while the latter are conducted by professional men who expect to be paid for service, but who neither watch for windfalls nor raise their fees merely because there are more sick to be cured, more children to be taught, is an

illusion no less astonishing than that the leaders of industry should welcome the insult as an honor and wear their humiliation as a kind of halo. The work of making boots or building a house is in itself no more degrading than that of curing the sick or teaching the ignorant. It is as necessary and therefore as honorable. It should be at least equally bound by rules which have as their object to maintain the standards of professional service. It should be at least equally free from the vulgar subordination of moral standards to financial interests.¹

Summary. — Conduct to be ethical must meet general social approval. It is of the highest value to the group and to the individual. It has its sanction in custom and may have long been a matter of usage before it was formally stated in codes. The school board has many special obligations. In many ways the duties are like those of a profession, and the members are subject to the same high standards. The codes of business, public service, and teaching also apply in some measure to the directorship. In addition, there are special obligations which should be embodied in written codes for school boards. When this is done, and when each director tries to live up to his ethical obligations, then his duties and

¹Tawney, R. H. — *The Acquisitive Society*; Harcourt, Brace, and Company, Inc., 1920.

his associations will become in the highest sense congenial, friction will be eliminated, and the schools will make greater progress.

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CHAPTER VIII

GETTING EDUCATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

Need of perspective. -- The school director is usually a busy person. Many demands are made upon his limited time. He has his personal affairs first of all, for, like most Americans, he has to work for a living. Also, like other people, he occasionally wants a little time for recreation and indulgence of special interests or hobbies. Just when he would like to give his attention to some important personal business matter, or just when he would like to take a needed vacation, he may find himself called upon to inspect a new school building, justify a proposed bond issue before a parent-teachers association, or attend a board meeting. At such times he must wonder if his public work is worth while.

The position is not without annoyances of another sort. Well-meaning people are sometimes exasperating about petty school affairs that might be adjusted in any one of a half dozen ways without making any real difference. There are those who take the contrary side on

all school policies. Others carry complaints with unfailing regularity; others are as faithful in bringing gossip. The newspapers may declare that "the school children of to-day are not thoroughly grounded in anything; the three R's are being woefully neglected; the pupils are not being taught to do any useful work; the school program consists of fads and frills." Harassed by his personal difficulties and beset by ignorant, obstinate, and dyspeptic patrons, the director must at times long with deep and sincere intensity to throw up his job.

It is at just such times as these that he needs to call upon all his reserve of good nature, common sense, and faith in education. He cannot permit himself to be easily disheartened by criticism and dismayed by failure. He cannot permit himself to surrender because he meets obstacles to school progress, or because he finds progress impossible in the very direction where he hoped for success. To yield too much to everyday pressure makes him a creature of circumstances. Whatever the situation, he should discipline himself until he can hold true to the course which has been planned until it meets with success or a better course presents itself.

It will help him to do this if he will occasionally consider what education means. A survey of the plan and progress of the school should not only renew his faith in education but should also reveal new and unexpected means and methods of progress. He should try to get a broad and generous view of education, to ask where the school is going, whether it is justifying itself, and whether it is keeping up with improvements conspicuous in every other aspect of life. He should, as a result of his study, return to school board routine with a deeper understanding of its significance and of the part he can play in shaping the future through its instrumentality. In the pages which follow, four interesting questions will be raised. Although the discussion must be brief, it is hoped it will reveal the significance of the issues. The questions are:

1. What are the schools for?
2. Do the schools justify themselves?
3. Are the schools improving?
4. What do the schools need?

What the schools are for. — The real purpose for which the school exists is to promote human welfare. It does this, in the words of the su-

perintendent of schools of one of our largest cities, by "cultivating the abilities of all its children as nearly towards perfection as the limitations of school time and children's aptitudes permit."¹ More specifically, he presents the graduate as possessing the following characteristics as he, "certificate in hand, theoretically walks down the front steps of a perfect school on graduation day":

1. Health, agility, cleanliness, good posture.
2. Accuracy and reasonable speed in such computations as an ordinary citizen is called upon to make.
3. Appreciation of the value of money, of the advantage of intelligent spending, and of thrift.
4. Knowledge of the main avenues of self-support, the nature of occupations, wages, and opportunities.
5. Taste, refinement, appreciation of beauty in literature, music, art, and nature.
6. Desire and ability to coöperate with others. Willingness to act under direction; loyalty.
7. Intelligent patriotism.
8. Industry, perseverance, grip, grit, self-reliance.
9. Honesty, decency, clean-mindedness.
10. Good manners, courtesy, consideration for others, helpfulness, readiness to volunteer, unselfishness.
11. Advantageous use of leisure.
12. All-around capacity, harmonious development.

¹ McAndrew, William — *The Public and Its School*, p. 21; The World Book Company. (Copyright, 1916.)

The cardinal principles. — The same ideas have been stated in more general terms in a committee report to the National Education Association. This committee, taking the attitude that "education in a democracy should develop in each individual the knowledge, interests, ideals, habits, and powers whereby he will find his place and use that place to shape both himself and society towards ever nobler ends," framed seven main objectives of education;¹ namely,

1. *Health.* — The school should provide health instruction, inculcate health habits, organize an effective program of physical activities, regard health needs in planning work and play, and coöperate with home and community in safeguarding and promoting health interests.

2. *Command of fundamental processes.* — Much of the energy of the school is properly devoted to teaching certain fundamental processes, such as reading, writing, arithmetic, and the elements of oral and written expression.

3. *Worthy home membership.* — This objective applies to both boys and girls. The social studies should deal with the home as a fundamental social institution and clarify its relation to the wider interests outside. Literature should interpret and idealize the human elements that go to make the home. Music and art should result in more beautiful homes and in greater joy therein. The

¹ *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, pp. 9-16; United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 35, 1918.

coeducational school with a faculty of men and women should, in its organization and its activities, exemplify wholesome relations between boys and girls and men and women.

4. *Vocation*. — Vocational education should equip the individual to secure a livelihood for himself and those dependent on him, to serve society well through his vocation, to maintain the right relationships toward his fellow workers and society, and, as far as possible, to find in that vocation his own best development.

5. *Civic education*. — This should develop in the individual those qualities whereby he will act well his part as a member of neighborhood, town or city, state, and nation, and give him a basis for understanding international problems.

For such citizenship the following are essential: a many-sided interest in the welfare of the communities to which one belongs; loyalty to ideals of civic righteousness; practical knowledge of social agencies and institutions; good judgment as to means and methods that will promote one social end without defeating others; and as putting all of these into effect, habits of cordial coöperation in social undertakings.

6. *Worthy use of leisure*. — Education should equip the individual to secure from his leisure the re-creation of body, mind, and spirit, and the enrichment and enlargement of his personality.

This objective calls for the ability to utilize the common means of enjoyment, such as music, art, literature, drama, and social intercourse, together with the fostering in each individual of one or more special avocational interests.

7. *Ethical character.* — In a democratic society ethical character becomes paramount among objectives. Among the means for developing ethical character may be mentioned the wise selection of content and methods of instruction in all subjects of study, the social contacts of pupils with one another and with their teachers, the opportunities afforded by the organization and administration of the school for the development on the part of the pupils of the sense of personal responsibility and initiative, and above all, the spirit of service and the principles of true democracy which should permeate the whole school — principals, teachers, and pupils.

Does education pay? — It is an American tradition that education is necessary and desirable. It is not so clear to every one that its values are such as can be spread on a balance sheet. That evidence is accumulating on this point the succeeding paragraphs will endeavor to show. As a first item, note the following summary of what the school does — a summary typical of hundreds of schools in the country:

The schools are in operation 190 days a year and six hours a day. In addition there are the summer and evening sessions. The total number of instruction hours given to pupils amounts to 144,500,000.

For six hours each day 134,600 children are cared for in regular sessions. During all this time parents are relieved of their care. The Board of Education, in its

building program, is attempting to provide clean, well-lighted, well-heated buildings for all of these children.

In addition to being cared for they are taught to work, study, and play together. They are given a chance to learn how to be healthy, how to read, write, and figure, how to make things with tools, and how to use their leisure time. All human progress is brought before them.

Their characters and their ideals are being formed. They are trained for citizenship.¹

The cost of this service which the schools of Detroit are rendering the parents was about 8.6 cents an hour, considerably less than it could have been obtained for without the intervention of the school. It pays to have children cared for in good, clean, healthful surroundings, it pays to have their energies directed into useful activities, it pays to have them learn the great lessons of social coöperation and social accord. These values — protective, educational, and social — are revealed in many special ways.

1. *The school makes for greater intelligence.* — A few years ago it was the fashion to call America a nation of sixth graders. Thirty years ago fifty per cent of the school population did eighth grade work. This percentage has been raised to seventy per cent. At the same time,

¹ *Superintendent's Monthly Letter*, Detroit Public Schools, I, 2.

the high school senior group has grown to fourteen per cent, while three and one-half per cent are found in colleges and universities. Thus the amount of education is increasing and its benefits are being more widely distributed.

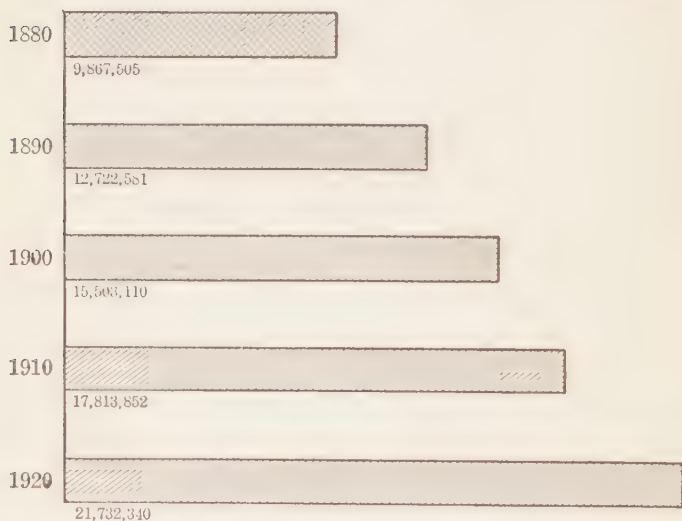


CHART VIII. How the schools have grown - enrollment 1880-1920.

During the war a large number of draftees were given tests of intelligence, and as a result astounding statements were made to the effect that the average of American intelligence barely passed the moron group. Certain southern states made an especially poor showing, white

population alone considered. Leaving aside the question as to whether the tests used really measured intelligence in a reliable way or not, the inference has gained in strength that the influence of the schools was reflected in the scores made to a very high degree. The states with the better schools were the ones which ranked highest in intelligence. In the opinion of one authority, formal schooling contributes fifty-six per cent to intelligence scores, everyday life eleven per cent, and inborn capacity thirty-three per cent.¹

Bagley has reached similar conclusions. He finds that there is a high tendency for schooling to be associated with intelligence ($.84 \pm .038$), with literacy ($.82 \pm .043$), with representative leaders ($.67 \pm .072$), and with productive efficiency ($.69 \pm .069$). He concludes:

The results of the tests speak with compelling force for educational expansion. They tell us convincingly that the level of trained and informed intelligence in the Nation as a whole could be raised within a generation. They tell us where schools have been neglected, there is relative weakness; where schools have been cherished, there is relative strength.²

¹ Burt, Cyril — *Mental and Scholastic Tests*, pp. 20 ff., 1921.

² Bagley, William C. — "Do Good Schools Pay?" *Journal of the National Education Association*, XII, 211-16.

2. *The school makes for better health.* — Not only does the school improve intelligence, but it improves the physical body. Physical education is a marked feature of education in all the better schools. The old physiology and anatomy which consisted in learning the names and functions of the parts of the body has declined in importance, and has been supplanted by a new type of hygiene with emphasis upon exercises that promote bodily health and correct bodily defects; upon nutrition, sanitation, pure air, pure water, pure food, cleanliness of body, and wholesome personal habits. The control over disease has been marked. In seventy-five years the yearly death rate has declined from 28.0 per thousand to 11.8 per thousand. Data on the army physical examinations showed conclusively that states which ranked highest in schooling also ranked highest in the physical fitness of its men.

Results are no less marked in the field of social hygiene. Data from the second million of the draft indicate a high correlation between freedom from social diseases and the educational status of the states. Oregon, which made the best record, is the one state of the Union in

which a consistent, thorough, and general system of education for the eradication of social diseases has been carried on for several years. Bagley expresses this tendency for the states with better schools to be freer from social diseases as a correlation of .57.¹

3. *Education decreases crime.* — Directly and indirectly criminality is responsible for one of the biggest expenses of society, and for the biggest social losses. Criminals prey upon legitimate business. They make necessary outlays for safes, vaults, burglar alarms, check protectors, watchmen, police, courts, and prisons. They cause much human misery. The criminal is one of the greatest obstacles to progress.

Statistics have been given showing an alarming increase in crime in recent years. At first thought this fact might indicate the schools are not doing their duty, especially in the light of the large number of young persons who are guilty of offenses against society. Yet it must be granted that great forces have been at work making for criminality in spite of all the efforts of education. War periods have always proved to be disorganizing. In addition, other influ-

¹ Bagley, William C. — "Moral Ratings for the Several States"; *Educational Administration and Supervision*; XI, 289-306.

ences attendant upon sudden and unusual changes in industry, and transportation and the great increase in wealth have been too much for the more unstable minds. Other institutions have neglected to exercise the control for which they are responsible. As a result the schools have had more to overcome and a heavier burden to carry.

The data available are favorable to the schools. They show that states which rank highest in education have fewer homicides. They show that states which rank highest in education rank lower in the number of Federal offenses. By studying only states in which fifty-five per cent or more of the population is native, the showing for the schools is improved about twenty-five per cent. The most impressive figures come from northern states where mass education has been established on a strong basis for many years. The New England states, the North Central area, and the Northwest and West stand first.¹

4. *The school makes for greater economic efficiency.* — Some of the best evidence on the subject is in the field of economic efficiency.

¹*Op. cit.*, XII, 211-16.

The writer found that incomes are higher in the states with better schools. (The correlation between education and income is $.657 \pm .057$.) Education promotes thrift. The savings deposits of the states highest in education greatly exceed the savings deposits of those which are low in education. The relation between savings and income, which may be called the thrift ratio, is also higher in the states which have better schools. It is interesting to note that the New England states with their long-established public school systems lead the country in per capita savings.

The savings of school children have gone into the millions. Thus, not only is the habit of saving established, and knowledge of banking methods taught, but the children accumulate a considerable capital which is used in the productive work of the world. With twenty million pupils in the schools it is easy to see that net savings of two to three dollars per child is an item of great financial importance. When principal and interest over a period of the school life is expressed in terms of railroads, irrigation systems, factories, office buildings, mills, and quarries, its significance is apparent.

It is seen that the schools are not tax consumers; they are wealth producers.

Facts show that education increases productivity. Various studies have resulted in such conclusions as the following on this point:

1. A comparison of Massachusetts and Tennessee showed that while the former spent \$4.62 more per capita per year for education than the latter it produced \$144 per capita per year more wealth.

2. Massachusetts gave 12 million more than Tennessee and produced 403 million dollars more wealth per year.

3. The best states educationally have accumulated about twice the wealth of the poorer states.

4. The best nations educationally have from two to five times as much wealth as the illiterate nations.¹

Ellis also reported on the effect of training upon the earning power of the individual. He found for the period covered that every day spent in school pays the child nine dollars, his reasoning being as follows:

1. Uneducated laborers earn on the average \$500 a year for forty years, a total of \$20,000.

2. High school graduates earn on the average \$1000 a year for forty years, a total of \$40,000.

3. This education required a total of twelve years of school of 180 days each, a total of 2160 days in school.

¹ Ellis, Caswell A. *The Money Value of an Education*, pp. 6-14; United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 22, 1917.

The figures are obsolete, but the principle remains the same. Of course there is a mutual dependence between wealth and education. Education promotes wealth; wealth furnishes the means for education.

4. If 2160 days at school add \$20,000 to the income for life, then each day at school adds \$9.26.

Studies made of farm incomes show the same results. Farmers with high school education had incomes nearly double those who had grade school education only; the college graduate on the farm produced nearly three times as much. Data on 273 landowners in three representative areas in Indiana gave these figures:

EDUCATION	NUMBER STUDIED	AVERAGE SIZE OF FARMS	AVERAGE CAPITAL	AVERAGE LABOR INCOME	AVERAGE AGE
No schooling .	4	91	\$15,039	\$586	55
Common school	214	165	27,494	301	51
High school .	46	206	37,725	651	46
College . .	9	240	48,781	796	53

Natural resources, without the ability to use them for human good, are insufficient. The Indian had all the natural wealth of the continent, but lived a life of poverty. Horace Mann illustrated this point in his discussion of transportation. He declared that the savage can swim the river with only a dozen pounds on his back. When he is educated enough to make an ax, fell a tree, and make a raft, he can transport many times as much. As soon as he

learns to rip logs into boards and builds a boat, he multiplies his power a hundredfold; and when to this knowledge he adds mathematics, chemistry, physics, and other modern sciences, he can produce the modern steel leviathans that defy wind, storm, and distance, and bear to the uttermost parts of the earth burdens a millionfold greater than the untrained savage could carry across the narrow river.

5. *The school makes for greatness in men.* — Education greatly increases the probability of

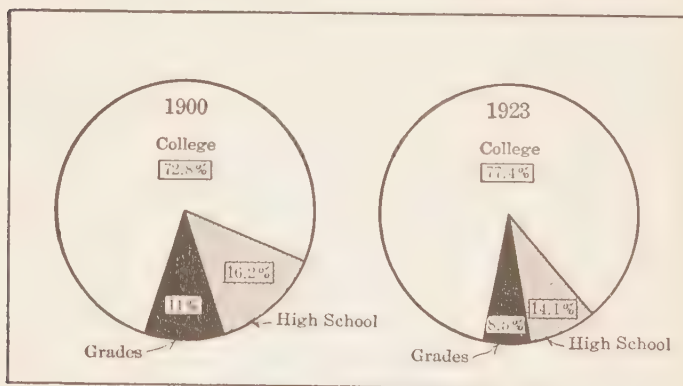


CHART IX. — School training of notables

success in life. College education increases the chances to become United States Representative 352 times; Senator 530 times; President

1392 times; and Justice of the Supreme Court 2027 times. On the whole, it is believed that college education increases the chances of success at least 800 times. When placed on the basis of achieving distinction, the chances favor the better educated as shown by studies of notables listed in "Who's Who":¹

EDUCATION	1899-1900	1922-1923
Per cent with college training	72.8	77.4
Per cent with high school training	16.2	14.1
Per cent with grade school training	11.0	8.5

Other studies reinforce the one just given. Ellis declares that the child with no schooling

AMOUNT OF EDUCATION	CHANCES OF ACHIEVING DISTINCTION
None	1 in 161,290
Eighth grade	1 in 40,841
High school	1 in 1,606
College	1 in 173

has one chance in 150,000 of achieving distinction; with elementary education he has 4 times this chance; with high school education, 87

¹ *Facts on the Public Schools for American Education Week*, Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, II, 106-7.

times this chance; and with college education, 800 times the chance. Figures by Hambrecht and Childs¹ are even more startling, as seen on page 261.

The great work that the schools have performed cannot be denied. They have made for progress. On the other hand, the neglect of education results in economic loss and social degeneration. The direct result of failure to provide adequate schooling facilities in American communities may be seen in the table which follows:²

EDUCATIONAL LIABILITIES

4,931,905 confessed illiterates with "no schooling whatever."

3,084,733 native born illiterates.

1,242,572 native white illiterates.

1,340,625 men rejected (a little more than one in five) in the draft as physically unfit for military service.

1,437,783 children between the ages of 7 and 13 not attending "any kind of educational institution."

\$825,000,000 annual loss due to illiteracy.

\$3,000,045,000 annual economic loss from preventable disease and death.

Are the schools improving? – Critics can be found who declare the schools are not as good to-day as they were twenty-five, fifty, seventy-

¹*Op. cit.*, p. 106.

²*Ibid.*, p. 116.

five years ago. Older and more conservative patrons are most likely to bring this charge, due in some measure to the human tendency to "believe his own times were best." There are others of the present generation who feel that little educational progress is being made. If the schools are to be real agencies of progress, they must keep step with improvements in other affairs of life. A school system is usually either improving or declining; it seldom stands still. As all directors desire to keep the schools on the up-grade, it is advisable to inquire as to their relative progress, even if criticisms were never made. Some of the facts which indicate better schools are as follows:

1. *The schools are teaching more subject matter than ever before.* — The range of knowledge and skills now taught in the schools is far greater than ever taught before. The pupil in the elementary school has a more diversified offering than high school students of earlier days. In the first American schools, the three R's were the main subjects of study. The curriculum has been expanded not only until more arithmetic, reading, and writing are taught, but many other subjects besides. The chart which

listing of courses will show how generous the high school curriculum has become:

Geography	French	Agriculture
History	Latin	Printing
Economics	Spanish	Drafting
Civics	Typewriting	Machine Shop
Music	Shorthand	Plumbing
Art	Bookkeeping	Tailoring
Literature	Physical Training	Bookbinding
Composition	Hygiene	Basketry
Mathematics	Dramatics	Shoe Repairing
Physiology	Cooking	Carpentry
Physical Science	Sewing	Ethics
General Science	Millinery	Nursing
Penmanship	Public Speaking	Journalism

2. *The schools are doing better teaching.* — Not only are the schools teaching more, but they are doing better work. This is shown in several ways. First, a larger percentage of pupils are being promoted now each year than were twenty years ago. As a result, they are younger when they finish school and have a longer period of useful work before them. The cost of repeating grades through failure to make promotions is on the decrease. The motto now is to have every pupil working at the rate which is normal for himself. There are fewer over-

age and nonadjusted children in schools now than ever before.

Test results also show this improvement. Scientific measuring devices have been developed with standards of performance for the various ages and grades. Thus a fourth grader should on the average produce penmanship of a given quality, make a given score on a spelling test, and do a certain number of examples in arithmetic correctly. As the years have passed, the earliest of these standards have had to be raised, showing that pupils of a given grade or age are improving.

A very interesting experiment was conducted recently. It happened that examination questions used in the Boston schools in 1845 were discovered, together with the grades made by the pupils. These tests were given again to 12,000 unselected children from all parts of the United States. The median score (not percentage) made in 1845 was 37.5; in 1919 it was 45.5. It must be noted that while the Boston pupils who were tested in 1845 were, as the examining committee said, "the flower of the school" the pupils in 1919 were the lowest forty per cent remaining in the eighth grade, the

superior sixty per cent having already graduated. In spite of this handicap, in spite of more subjects, the 1919 pupils were superior.¹

The children of 1845 did excel the children of 1919 on some questions. The children of to-day are judged to be more intelligent, more able to think and to apply knowledge, than the 1845 children, but have less control over abstract skills and concepts. Continuing, the authors say:

The significant aspects of the results, however, are the types of questions on which modern children fail or excel. The five questions on which they make the poorest showing are in formal computation in arithmetic. Next comes definitions and grammar, with memory questions in history and geography next. On the other hand, the 1919 children do exceptionally well in certain questions in grammar, history, natural philosophy, and geography. . . . The low scores are made in part on material which is of very little value to anyone, while the questions on which the modern children excel are those which have content and meaning. . . . In natural philosophy, the 1919 children did much better without instruction than the 1845 children after study of a textbook.

3. *Administration is far better than it has ever been.* — Scientific administration of schools is of recent growth. Coördination is an accom-

¹ Caldwell, Otis W., and Courtis, Stuart A. — *Then and Now in Education*, pp. 84-97; The World Book Company. (Copyright, 1916.)

plished fact. Its improvement may be summarized under eleven important achievements, "each of which represents the adoption or extension of a tendency prominent in American education to-day"; namely,

1. The fact basis of action
2. A complete and unified administrative plan
3. A thorough-going instructional policy
4. Fixed responsibility; personal initiative
5. Personnel management
6. Building program
7. Scientific budget making
8. Cost accounting
9. Child accounting
10. Scientific measurement of results
11. Full publicity

A large list of claims of a varied nature might be made for the schools of to-day. The school boards who are administering education have made for themselves an enviable record, and one of which they may well feel proud. Comparing the schools of the present with those of twenty-five years ago there is evidence favorable to the schools to-day as follows:

1. The teachers are better trained
2. The schoolhouses are better
3. There is more and better equipment
4. Textbooks have been greatly improved

5. The schools are more interesting to the children
6. The length of the school year has increased
7. There is a broader program of social activities such as clubs, societies, athletics, drama, journalism, etc.
8. Attendance has improved
9. A larger proportion of the population is in attendance
10. There are better libraries
11. Community coöperation has been improved
12. The school is doing more for the community

What do the schools need? — There has been no intention to assume that because the schools are growing better there is now nothing to do. On the contrary, a review of the accomplishments of the past should have the effect of encouraging greater effort in the future. New needs, new conditions are ever arising, and to meet these school boards have to be ever on the alert. It is possible, too, to do better what is being done. Achievements give new visions of the future, and new opportunities for public service. The prospect of worth while things to do stirs the American mind as can nothing else.

There is no lack of excellent guidance along educational lines. Teachers' associations have announced their platforms; statesmen and lead-

ers have sounded a new call to educational service. School boards, superintendents, school business officials, have formulated programs of future action. By no one have the needs been voiced more forcefully than by a great school administrator and leader in an address before the National Education Association.¹ The seven problems discussed at length in his address can only be mentioned here:

1. The need of much better educational machinery for the assimilation of our foreign born peoples and of those who may in future come to live among us.

2. A second national problem of large significance for the future of national stock is the general provision of a good system of health education for our people.

3. A third large problem that promises to call for much close thinking in the decade that lies ahead is that which involves a very material reorganization and redirection of our school curricula, both urban and rural, that we may the better adapt our schools to the changing conditions and needs of our national life.

4. New forms of citizenship training to develop a larger sense of personal responsibility in both individual and civic matters are much needed. We must train our people to assume new burdens, shoulder new tasks, and subordinate personal and sordid motives to the greater ideas of international right and justice, peace and good will, sterling national worth and service to mankind.

¹ Cubberley, E. P. — "The American School Program from the Standpoint of the Nation"; *School and Society*, XVIII, 121-27.

5. Another large and important educational problem is that of the reorganization of rural education to fit the rural schools to minister better to the needs of rural life and rural people.

6. A need of yearly increasing importance is that of a much more general equalization of both the advantages and the burdens of a good education than is now enjoyed by the people of this nation.

7. Provision for the placing of an adequately trained teacher in every classroom in the United States.

8. The nationalization of education in the minds of our people, with some intelligent form of national aid in school support.

Faith in the future. — There is need, too, to keep and build upon the traditional American faith in education. In 1642 Massachusetts passed the first law requiring general education on this continent in order that "learning might not be buried in the graves of our fathers." A hundred years later, the Northwest Territory was organized under an ordinance which declared:

Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged.

The early ideals of free universal education have been expanded and put into practice wherever the American people have gone —

from the Atlantic to the Pacific, Alaska, the West Indies, Hawaii, the Philippines — until the ideals of the free school have become one with the ideals of a free government. This inspiration of working in the field of public education is aptly stated in quotation below:

Schools are the chief instruments that we use consciously to transform personal freedom into liberty and to save it from corrupting license. They are the chief supports of a democratic system of life organized to give liberty and happiness a wider spread. They are the developers of initiative and appreciation, the makers of modesty and confidence in men. Their services are sanctified by a hundred historic guarantees and a thousand urges to a better life. We believe in them because we aspire to that kind of civilization which cannot exist without their supporting strength.¹

Final conclusions. --- The fundamental proposition in this book is that the school director is an important force in shaping the course of education. As such, he is also a powerful instrument in guiding the destiny of the state, the nation, and society. A school may add immeasurably to the advancement of human welfare. To do this its administrators must be wise, energetic, and courageous. They must be

¹ Suzzallo, Henry — *Our Faith in Education*, pp. 106-7; J. B. Lippincott Company, 1924.

directed by sound principles. The compensation which they receive is not in money, nor even in honor, but is in the consciousness of having helped as fully as possible in training young men and women for the part which they are to play in American state and national life, and for that larger part which America is to play in the affairs of the world.

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